LIBERIA.

A republic founded by black men, reared by black men, maintained by black men, and which holds out to our hope the brightest prospects.—HENRY CLAY.

BULLETIN No. 12. FEBRUARY, 1898.

ISSUED BY THE

AMERICAN COLONIZATION SOCIETY.

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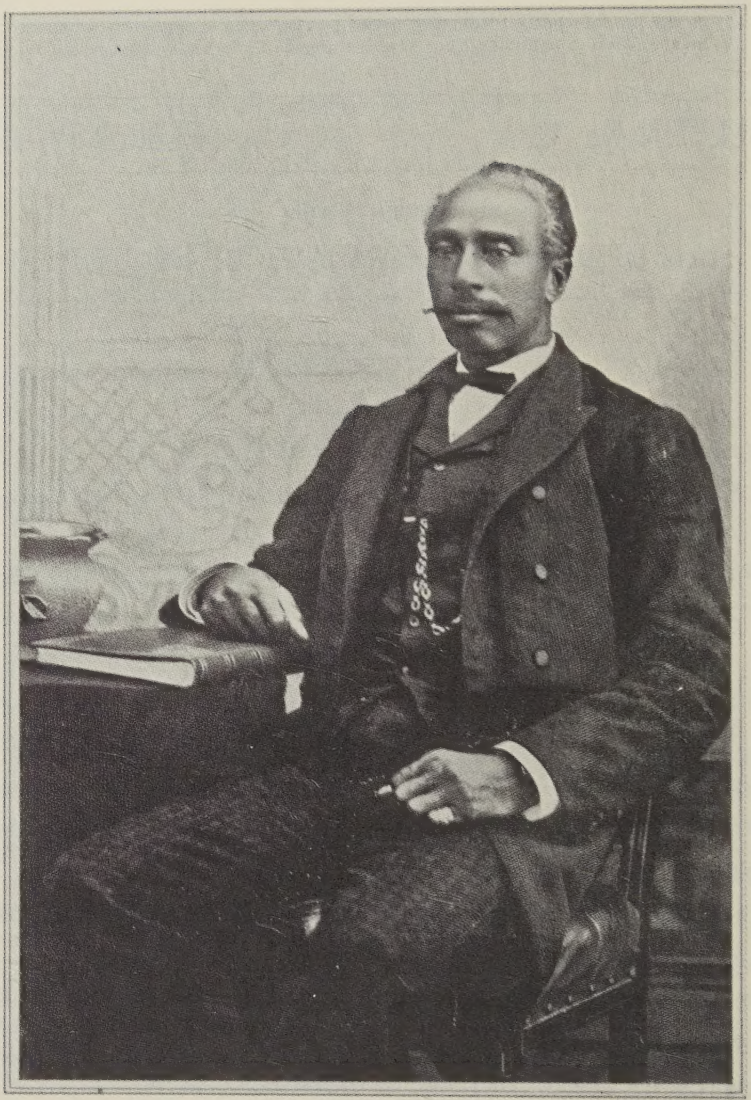
WASHINGTON, D. C.

COLONIZATION BUILDING, 450 PENNSYLVANIA AVENUE.



WILLIAM DAVID COLEMAN.

President of Liberia.

LIBERIA.

BULLETIN No. 12. FEBRUARY, 1898.

WILLIAM DAVID COLEMAN, PRESIDENT OF LIBERIA.

William David Coleman, President of Liberia, was born in Fayette county, State of Kentucky, United States of America, July 18, 1842. His father died when he was quite young, leaving him under a mother's care. She, with a brother, emigrated to Liberia in December, 1853, bringing with her her three children.

On arriving here William was placed at the Presbyterian Mission School at Clay-Ashland, but was able to remain there only a short time. Not having means to support himself at school, he was obliged to work in the day and apply himself to study at night.

When about sixteen years of age he began to learn the carpenter's trade, and was so successful that he became a master workman. He subsequently acquired a farm, and with the proceeds of his farm and the earnings from his trade supported a mother, wife, and children. At a still later period he also successfully engaged in mercantile business.

In the midst of these industrial and business activities he found time for attention to public duties, which he began to discharge early in life, commencing with the humblest civil positions. He served in the National Legislature of Liberia as a member of the House of Representatives six years, as a Senator eight years, and as Vice-president of the Republic one term and part of the second term, when on the death of President Cheeseman, November 12, 1896, under the Constitution he became President for the remainder of the term ending in January, 1898. At the National election held in May, 1897, by a large majority of votes he was elected President for the term of two years, commencing January, 1898.

President Coleman is an example of a self-made man, who by integrity, industry, and public spirit has achieved business success in Liberia, ably filled many public offices with fidelity, and at length been called to fill the highest position of trust and honor in the gift of his countrymen.

THE EIGHTY-FIRST ANNUAL REPORT OF THE AMERICAN COLONIZATION SOCIETY.

The close of the Civil War in the United States in 1865, involving as it did the enfranchisement of all the Negro slaves in this country, substantially changed the work of this Society from what theretofore had been termed the colonization of Liberia to the encouragement and assistance of emigration to that country and otherwise fostering its best interests.

The noble idea of relieving this country from the blight and curse of slavery and the Negro from bondage was the leading one which had inspired that grand galaxy of Christians, statesmen, and philanthropists who founded this Society and faithfully carried on its work through all the vicissitudes of encouragement and despondency for more than two-thirds of a century, and until it had at length been realized through the instrumentality of a long, expensive, and bloody civil conflict instead of by peaceful colonization, as proposed by them.

But, meantime, a colonial settlement had been made on the most eligible part of the west coast of Africa, which had grown into an independent Negro State, in form of government republican, and recognized by most of the civilized nations of the world.

What a promising field of usefulness might not still lie before the people of this little, independent, civilized Negro State, in the native land of their ancestors and among the 200,000,000 of their race still living there whose condition of barbarism had from time immemorial been such that slavery in America became the greatest boon ever vouchsafed to them! And might not Liberia become a welcome asylum to thousands of Negroes who were discontented with their environment and lot in the United States?

The increase of the Negroes in the United States had proceeded at a pace so much more rapid than had the repatriation of Africa by means of colonization that the return of the entire Negro population of the United States to Africa, as had been contemplated at first, was utterly impracticable and, in fact, no longer desirable. By the United States census of 1890 it appeared that the colored population of the country increased, in the decade from 1880 to 1890, 856,800, or at the rate of 85,680 a year, 234 a day, 10 an hour. The average cost of colonization had been from $100 to $150 per head, and therefore it will be seen at once what an enormous sum of money would be required to enable colonization even to keep pace with the increase of the Negro population in this country.

Following close upon emancipation, all the channels of benevolence in the United States for the benefit of the Negro were turned in the direction of his education and improvement here, and the funds which had annually been contributed for the support of colonization were thus turned in another, but most worthy, direction.

To elucidate this statement, we give a *partial* list of the amounts, taken from official reports at hand, contributed and expended for the benefit of the Negro in the United States during the last fiscal year:

Domestic Missions of the Domestic and Foreign Missionary Society of the Protestant Episcopal Church	$55,000 00
The American Baptist Home Mission Society	122,000 00
The Presbyterian Board of Missions for Freedmen	150,000 00
The Freedmen's Aid and Southern Education Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church	246,000 00
The Congregational American Missionary Association	250,000 00
For the Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute	111,000 00
For the Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute	116,000 00

The Rev. H. B. Frissell, D. D., principal of the Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute, in a recent publication of that institution, says: "The North and South are working together for the Negro, for whose education the latter has given, in taxation, since 1870, about sixty millions of dollars, and the former, in donations, about twenty-five millions. About a million a year now comes from the North and over three millions yearly from the Southern States for Negro schools. The South supports the

free schools, the North maintains institutions for providing them with teachers."

Colonization on the scale originally contemplated can no longer be carried on with the resources within reach of this Society. Its work must largely be limited to collecting and disseminating such information as is sought for and will be of service to the thousands of Negroes who desire to emigrate to Liberia; to advise and aid the Liberians, who naturally still look to the Society as their friend and the guardian of their interests, and occasionally to give some pecuniary assistance to an exceptionally worthy and desirable person who is anxious to emigrate, but without sufficient means to justify the undertaking.

During the past year the only assistance rendered to emigrants by this Society was a free passage from New York to Monrovia, given on the recommendation of the Pennsylvania Colonization Society, to Mr. Oscar Hiland Massey, 28 years old, a graduate of Lincoln University, who, sailing from New York June 19, 1897, went out as a teacher.

BUREAU OF INFORMATION.

Bulletins Nos. 10 and 11, containing the best information obtainable concerning Liberia, Africa, and the Negro race, have been published and widely distributed during the year.

The opening up of Africa in the last decade through the discovery of its rich diamond and gold mines and its partition among the leading powers of Europe has created an unprecedented interest in that continent among all classes of people. The telegraph and the press have annihilated space and isolation, so that all the inhabitants of the globe are fast becoming like one great family, and we now look in our daily newspapers for the events transpiring simultaneously all over the world, and for those remote with almost as much interest as for those occurring at our very doors.

The Negroes in the United States are participating in the desire to learn and know about African affairs, as is evidenced by the numerous calls upon this Society for information. This is especially true of a large number of students in educational institutions, and of young people, many of whom have formed associations with the leading purpose of becoming better informed upon these subjects. This Society, both through its

publications and by its correspondence, to the best of its ability, is supplying this increasing demand.

Thousands of letters are annually received from Negroes in all parts of the United States—the North, the East, and the West, as well as the South—seeking reliable advice concerning the little black Republic, of which they have heard at least the name, and making inquiries about the conditions there, the best season for emigrating, the means and cost of transportation, the articles that profitably can be carried out by emigrants, and the assistance that can be obtained from this Society or from other sources.

When these applications are thoroughly investigated it is found that many of the applicants are too far advanced in years to venture upon emigration to a new country and climate, many have too large families of dependent children to warrant such a change, many have only the vaguest ideas of the conditions in Liberia, and what will be required to succeed there, and still more have not the means to pay for even a passage across the ocean at the lowest rate of fare.

The Society endeavors to correctly inform all who seek its advice and does not encourage the emigration of parties whose age, intelligence, or condition indicate unfitness for the undertaking.

EDUCATION.

Mr. Julius C. Stevens, our agent in Liberia, has continued his services in the interest of education. He has attended to the sales of school text-books and appliances of an approved standard, which are furnished to him through this Society, and are sold there at the wholesale cost prices in this country. By this arrangement better text-books and appliances are gradually being introduced into the schools, greater uniformity of books in the same school and class is secured, and the cost is made so low as to be within the reach of a much larger number of people than formerly were able to purchase them.

Mr. Stevens has visited a large number of the schools of the country, private as well as public, held conferences with and given advice to the teachers, and addressed the people on educational subjects.

Inspired by him, the people at Royesville, in Montserrado county, have provided a suitable site and erected and furnished a building for a school, which was opened on the 1st day of April

last. This Society has agreed to contribute $100 a year out of the income of the Graham fund toward the payment of the salary of the teacher, the payments to be made quarterly, on the receipt of the reports of the teacher as vouchers for the same. A satisfactory report of the teacher for the first quarter has been received and the payment agreed upon has been made.

The school at Greenville, Sinoe county, established on similar conditions, is doing well. The last report received showed an enrollment of 55 pupils, and Mr. Stevens commends the qualifications and efficiency of the teacher.

The Hall Free School at Harper, Cape Palmas, continues in successful operation in that locality. Mr. Stevens, under special instructions from this Society, visited it, examined the building and grounds, and investigated the school during the last part of May and the first part of June last, and made a detailed and comprehensive report, which was published in Bulletin No. 11.

His report of the ability and efficiency of the teacher, Mr. Samuel J. Dossen, was very favorable. He advised some changes in the courses of study and text-books, which are now being carried out. He also recommended repairs to the building to cost not exceeding $175, which the Executive Committee have authorized to be made. This school has the able and constant supervision and care of a local board of trustees organized under an act of the legislature of Liberia.

Semi-annual reports of the school are received regularly by this Society as vouchers for the payment of the teacher's salary. The last of these reports showed a total enrollment of 84 pupils during the half year, of whom 27 were children of aborigines. The school was graded in six classes, ranging in their studies from beginners in reading to the elements of geometry and algebra.

It is quite evident that this school is a very important factor in the educational work now being done in Liberia.

Nothing has been attempted at Beulah yet, for the reasons stated in our last annual report. The fund for the All Saints Hall School, undertaken to be established at this place a few years ago, is not yet sufficient to justify active operations, and is therefore kept invested by this Society.

The Scholarship in Gammon Theological Seminary, Atlanta, Georgia, supported by this Society from the income of the "Theodore Lewis Mason, M. D., Fund," was bestowed upon Mr. Joseph

C. Sherrill for the year 1897. President Thirkield, in the annua. catalogue of that institution, says in reference to Mr. Sherrill, "One of our best-equipped men, of high character and large promise of usefulness, having expressed his abiding conviction of the call of God to missionary work in Africa, has been made the beneficiary of this scholarship;" and in a letter dated November 9, 1897, he further says of Mr. Sherrill, who then had been graduated from the institution, "The Rev. Joseph C. Sherrill, A. M., has deep and abiding convictions with reference to his call to service in Africa. It is no sudden impulse, but is a strong conviction, which has matured during the last few years, that his mission was to go and labor for the redemption of the people of his fatherland. His cultured and devoted wife also gives herself gladly to this work. They have given their names to Bishop Hartzell and stand ready to respond to his call at any time. They give promise of large usefulness in that field. Lack of funds only prevents their immediate employment. He now holds one of the leading churches in the Little Rock Conference."

We should be glad to give a more extensive and favorable report of the educational work and outlook in Liberia, and yet it has in it something of encouragement. There are parts of our own country in which the facilities for the education of Negro children are not even as favorable as they are in parts of Liberia.

Mr. Booker T. Washington is reported to have made the following statement:

"I was in a county in Alabama not long ago where no public school for black children had been in session longer than three months. The State did not own a single school-house, a blackboard, nor a piece of crayon. No colored teacher in this county had been paid more than $16 a month for his work. In this county each colored child had received only 31 cents for his education for one year."

MT. COFFEE.

Of the Mt. Coffee enterprise Prof. O. F. Cook reports:

"The station has made some progress during the last year in spite of two reverses which seriously crippled our efforts. An epidemic of smallpox was raging in the vicinity when we returned in January last, which came nearer and nearer, until the Rev. F. E. Thomson, the independent missionary who had settled

near us, was attacked, together with the boys who formed his mission family. This prevented the gathering of any number of people at Mt. Coffee, where we had intended opening school work on a small scale.

"In March we were further stricken by the death of Mr. F. C. Straub, sent out by the Boston Board. Mr. Straub was to have occupied the Chair of Modern Languages in the reorganization of the college, but had spent his time for over a year in the study of the botany of the country and in surveying the land granted to our station, as well as the road to White Plains. He left valuable collections and notes, which are deposited in the United States National Museum.

"The items of progress made may be enumerated as follows:

"1. The Board of Trustees of Liberia College have authorized the establishment of industrial preparatory schools under the college organization, and one of these is to be located at Mt. Coffee.

"2. The farm has been extended somewhat and about 2,000 additional coffee trees have been set out, making about 12,000 in all, not including several thousand seedlings not large enough to be transplanted.

"3. The original grant of 1,000, a part of the additional grant of 1,000 acres, and the road to White Plains have been surveyed and plotted.

"4. An additional small building has been put up to serve for the accommodation of workmen and the storage of tools and supplies.

"We see no reason for altering our opinion that the region of Mt. Coffee offers the most accessible, fertile, and salubrious site for a new settlement and a center for educational work."

BRITISH DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA.

At the outset of Lord Salisbury's administration of the British government the colonial secretary, Mr. Chamberlain, sounded as the key-note of his policy a more comprehensive and energetic development of the British colonial estates.

Steam and electricity are the two great physical powers by which the world is now moved, and their extensive introduction

into Africa within the last few years is one of the noted events of our times.

Under Mr. Chamberlain's administration, on the West Coast of Africa a route has been surveyed and the construction of a railroad commenced, twenty or more miles of which have already been completed, starting from Freetown, the capital of Sierra Leone, and extending back through productive and hitherto undeveloped hinterlands to the eastern boundaries of that colony. Another route has been surveyed, starting from Lagos on the Guinea coast, running in a northerly direction to the rich Soudan country and the valley of the Niger, and a portion of the road at the seacoast end of the line has already been constructed.

The railways in South Africa have been built with remarkable rapidity and met with unprecedented financial success. The first sod of a railway, the Cape Town and Wellington, fifty-eight miles in length, was turned in 1859. Since then this line has been extended to the north more than 1,500 miles until it has reached Bulawayo, the late capital of the Matabelis. The inaugural ceremony of its opening, on the 4th of November last, was one of the historic events of the year. Among the distinguished guests present were the Hon. Henry M. Stanley, the great African explorer, and the Rev. Joseph C. Hartzell, D. D., the Methodist Episcopal Bishop of Africa from the United States.

There are at present three distinct systems of railways starting from the southern coast of Africa: First, the railway just described and its branches, called the Western and Interior system; second, the Midland system, which starts from Port Elizabeth and extends to the Orange river, with several branches and connections; and, third, the Eastern system, which starts from East London and extends to Aliwal North, also with branches and connections.

Expensive engineering difficulties had to be overcome in constructing these railways. The bridges, tunnels, and culverts number between eight and nine thousand. In the Orange river the water sometimes rises more than forty feet in twenty-four hours, and hence it was necessary to span it with bridges of the most substantial character. The one at Norval's Point has thirteen spans of 130 feet each, and cost about $400,000.

By curves and zigzags the steep ascents from the coast were

overcome. The western and interior system attains its highest altitude, 3,588 feet, about 137 miles from Cape Town; the highest point of the midland system, 5,185 feet, is reached at a distance of 164 miles from Port Elizabeth, and the eastern system reaches its summit of 5,586 feet at a distance of 207 miles from East London.

Coal mines have been found and opened in this part of Africa, which already are supplying three-fifths of all the coal used and shortly will supply the entire demand.

Accompanying these railways there are some 17,000 miles of telegraph wire in South Africa, these lines costing about two and one-half million dollars and yielding an annual revenue of one and one-quarter million dollars—a profitable investment.

The railways in South Africa cost an average of $47,000 per mile, and the net earnings for 1896 were reported to be 10 per cent. on the capital invested.

During the year more than 8,000,000 passengers were carried over these lines, and the exports and imports at Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, and East London for the same period amounted to about $100,000,000, the greater part of the goods having been carried over these lines of railway.

There are now nearly 5,000 miles of railway in South Africa.

The foregoing railway and telegraph statistics relating to South Africa have been taken largely from a paper recently read before the Royal Colonial Institute, London, by Sir David Tennant, agent general for the Cape of Good Hope, who says relative to their effect upon the development of the country:

"The benefits, direct and indirect, which have arisen from railway construction in the colony cannot be overestimated. In its commercial, social, and educational aspects the happiest results have been achieved. Places separated from the metropolis by weeks of ordinary journey can now be reached within a couple of days, and the facility and celerity of transport, coupled with the various improvements that modern science and skill can secure for comfort, conduce to more social intercourse, whilst the security afforded in the conveyance of goods from place to place, with reduction, as compared with previous rates in cost of carriage, has secured a substantial and lucrative traffic.

"The inducements offered to those in this country and other parts of the world to visit the Cape and South Africa for purposes

of health, pleasure, or business are considerably increased by the extensive railway system of the Colony. In proof of this I refer to the increase in 1896, as compared with 1895, of over one million and a quarter in the number of passengers by sea carriage to the Cape, nearly all of whom availed themselves of the advantages offered of traveling on the Cape railways. But beyond all this, the educational benefits arising from more frequent communication by means of the penny-postage system, brought about by the extension of the railways, and by the telegraph wire are very marked, and a thirst for knowledge, as also a desire for information, is quickened and satisfied by being kept in touch with the world outside the lonely veldt and the isolated farm. Even the native population exhibit a growing partiality for railway traveling. Members of the legislature, as well as the farming population in general, continue to clamor for further railway extension, and portions of the country unconnected with railway communication present, by petition, their several claims for consideration during each session of Parliament."

England's unrivaled power is sustained by her world-wide commerce. No island, however small or remote, escapes her eager search for trade. Her acquisition of immense colonial possessions in Africa and their development look to the enlargement of her commercial empire, and the agents she employs in her service, be they military or civil, the commander of an army, the administrator of a colony, or the consul of a port, are men of marked ability and experience in business affairs.

THE UNITED STATES AND LIBERIA.

In the settlement of Liberia by Negroes from this country the United States Government took an active and leading part, but, however, expressly enjoined its agents "to exercise no power founded on the principle of colonization, or other power than that of performing the benevolent offices" recited in their instructions. It dispatched agents who conducted the negotiations for the first purchase of territory for colonists, and subsequently sent out thousands of Negroes from the United States and superintended their settlement on this domain. While governmental responsibility for Liberia was thus disclaimed at the outset, it was nevertheless expected that the United States would at least at all times and in every practicable way manifest a friendly

interest in the colony planted so largely through its agency, and incidentally would encourage and aid this enterprise to the fullest extent consistent with its disclaimer of responsibility for colonization.

It is a matter of great regret that the commercial relations of Liberia and the United States have not been productive of greater material advantage to both, and it is hoped that the official representatives of the United States may be advised that the American Colonization Society earnestly appeals to them to encourage a deeper interest in promoting a more active and growing exchange of commodities and in bringing the people of the two countries into more intelligent sympathy with the work of the Society.

It is also hoped that in selecting such agents on the part of the United States reference may be had to their special fitness for this purpose.

IS LIBERIA MAKING ANY PROGRESS?

The question, "Is Liberia making any progress?" is frequently and anxiously asked. To this question an affirmative answer can be given, although by no means with the emphasis that its founders expected, nor even with that which gives a high degree of satisfaction to its present friends. We regret to say that it requires patient investigation to sustain an affirmative answer.

On the 26th day of last July, Liberia celebrated her jubilee, or 50th year of her independence. As the presidential term of office under her constitution is two years, the past half century of her political existence has witnessed twenty-five presidential elections, and, besides these, there have been three vacancies in the office of President, caused respectively by the deposition, resignation, and death of a President. All of these changes of the highest executive officer have been made in an orderly manner and in accordance with the provisions of the written constitution of the country.

That constitution, in its leading features modeled after the Constitution of the United States, has answered a fairly good purpose for half a century, but now it needs some amendments. The presidential term is too short. The election of a President every two years distracts the attention of the people from their ordinary industrial and business pursuits too frequently, and

with it brings about a too frequent change of subordinate officials.

The organization of the judicial department of the government could be simplified so as to make it more effective and at the same time less expensive.

It is also very important that the functions of government should be less centralized, and that systems of local government and direct taxes should be generally introduced for subordinate purposes, such as to provide for common schools, good roads, and other like objects. It is now too largely the case that every citizen of Liberia looks to the national government to supply all wants of a public character—local as well as national.

It appears that the Liberians have hitherto been opposed to the levying of any taxes upon houses or lands. The etymology of our word tariff indicates a barbaric origin of indirect taxes, and the Negro everywhere on the continent of Africa is now found vigorously protesting against direct taxes for any purpose whatsoever.

As evidence of some progress it may be stated that the government has of late maintained two gunboats, the *Gorronammah* and the *Rocktown*, with which it patrols its seaboard and thereby prevents extensive smuggling, which was formerly carried on with impunity, and better maintains its authority over the still slightly civilized native tribes residing at intervals on and near the coast. Letters received by this Society from the settlers at Cape Mount and Cape Palmas, the two extremities of the Liberian seacoast, where they had suffered greatly for many years from the disturbances and depredations of native tribes, now state that order and peaceful and amicable relations have been established.

And, again, increased activity of late in agricultural pursuits is a most welcome indication of some progress. Coffee being the chief article of export from Liberia at present, our agent, Mr. Stevens, was specially instructed to ascertain and report to us the growth of this industry the past year.

He prepared a circular of inquiry and thoroughly distributed it throughout the country, calling for the information wanted. The Liberians, unaccustomed to any form of a census or furnishing statistics for public use, did not respond as generally as he desired. Some people living in remote rural districts refused to

give the information asked for, fearing that the purpose was to increase their taxes. He, however, received sufficient returns to make a basis for a conservative estimate that the Liberian farmers had successfully planted 2,143,240 coffee scions during the past year.

We have not been able to obtain accurate official information of the amount of coffee exported; but we hope the Liberian government will see the great importance of making and publishing accurate reports annually of all their exports and imports, and in this respect put themselves in line with other civilized countries.

Another indication of progress is found in the increased efforts to make the natives a homogeneous part of the population of the country by cultivating more friendly relations with them, recognizing them as fellow-citizens, and giving them a fair share of the benefits of the government. President Coleman who, on the death of President Cheeseman, acceded to the chief magistracy November 13, 1896, is thoroughly committed to this policy. At the head of an expedition organized by himself and including some of the most prominent officers of the government and citizens of the Republic, he left Monrovia in July last for a visit to the tribes of the hinterlands, and he announced his intention to continue these visitations to all the still uncivilized parts of the country as practical steps toward the establishment of more friendly relations and increased trade.

We also have reason to believe that there has been some progress in education, although much less than we could desire. As we look through the annual Liberian budgets, we are pained to see so small a percentage of their totals appropriated for common schools, and still more so to learn that even this small amount is disbursed with very annoying irregularity. Education cannot make satisfactory progress where teachers are poorly and irregularly paid for their services.

The Liberian government should promptly reduce the number of officers and employés on its civil list and the salaries paid to them until it can afford to support a system of common schools in which every child in the country may obtain at least a good elementary education. Without this all her hopes for a brighter future will prove to be vain.

IN GENERAL.

Notwithstanding the great changes that have been wrought in the status of the Negro in the United States and elsewhere since the settlement of Liberia, there is nothing yet in the general outlook that calls in question the wisdom of the men who undertook to found an independent Negro State on the continent of Africa, or that demonstrates the Negro's inability to develop Liberia into a highly civilized, prosperous, and powerful nationality.

When the ship *Elizabeth*, the "Mayflower" of Liberia, landed her black pilgrims at Campelar March 20, 1820, almost the entire continent of Africa was in the possession of the Negro; but today nearly everywhere outside of Liberia he has been subjugated and is ruled over by other races far in advance of him in intelligence, wealth, and power, and races that will be slow to relinquish their supremacy.

In all the African colonial possessions, whether of Portugal, Spain, Italy, Germany, France, or England, not even excepting Sierra Leone, founded more than a century ago, the Negro, if permitted to participate in the government at all, is at the best but a factor of the smallest significance.

The republic of Hayti occupies not one-third of the West Indian island bearing that name, and its area, even were the whole island included, is so limited by its natural boundaries that it can never become a great State.

In the United States the Negro has made great progress since emancipation, as is witnessed by the general improvement in his clothing, food and shelter, his advance in education, his acquisition of property, his more comfortable and sometimes elegant residences, his more cultured and refined homes, his thousands of creditable church edifices built by himself, his more rational and dignified services in these houses of worship, his press that is conducted with increasing intelligence and ability; and yet separation, social and institutional, is more and more distinctly marked on race lines here as time goes on.

The legitimate amalgamation of the races is discountenanced and frowned upon, and the illegitimate, which was fostered by slavery, is now disappearing. His effective participation in the government of the country, either by a vote that is counted or by

holding office, affords but meager encouragement to his higher aspirations; the places he is given are mostly menial and subordinate, and the few holding higher positions are largely Caucasian in blood, features, color, and predilections.

As thus we see how the Negro in his efforts to reach supremacy or substantial equality is handicapped, the significance to the race of success in our colonization enterprise becomes the more apparent.

It is fortunate for Liberia that the jealous and vigilant rivalry between England and France tend to prevent further encroachments upon her territory by either, and that the latter, now claiming all the territory to the north and east, including the valley of the Niger, will in all probability not form permanent settlements after the manner of the English, but only hold military possession of the country for purposes of trade and commerce.

This Society now, as from the beginning, stands for the idea of an independent, civilized, Christian Negro State on the continent of Africa as a great benefaction to its own citizens and an uplifting influence on an entire race.

THE BIRDS OF LIBERIA.

The bird life of tropical countries in general is noted for the variety of its beautiful and interesting forms; nor does Liberia, though a country of comparatively small extent, appear to be any notable exception to the rule; for here occur some of the most brightly colored and some of the most curious of all the birds known to inhabit Africa. Up to the present time there have been recorded from this region some 270 different species; but the zoölogical explorations can scarcely be considered anything like exhaustive, and without doubt future investigations will largely augment this list.

Of hawks and eagles there are here about fifteen; but, as elsewhere, many of these are shy or of uncommon occurrence, so that by the ordinary observer few may ever be seen. Eight kinds of owls have been found, but, being nocturnal, are even less likely to be met with than are the hawks or eagles.

The nightjars or goatsuckers, so called from the absurd notion,

long held, that they had the habit which the latter name indicates, are represented by four species, two of which are of particular interest. One of these is the long-tailed goatsucker, a bird 14 or 15 inches in total length, with the central feathers of the tail over 11 inches long. The leona, or pennant-winged nightjar, is 8 or 9 inches in length, and like its relatives, is of a mottled brown color. The remarkable appendages, which have suggested one of its common names, are two slender feather shafts which, in the male, spring one from each wing, and which are sometimes over 17 inches long, destitute of vanes, except near the tips. When the bird is at rest these shafts are erected, presenting thus a most striking appearance.

The common chimney or barn swallow of Europe seems to be a common winter visitor in Liberia. Another species of this family, the river swallow, peculiar to West Central Africa, also occurs. Its general color is a metallic blue, the throat being pure white.

The rollers, of which two species have been reported from this section, are so called from their peculiar unsteady flight and their habit of turning over in the air after the manner of a tumbler-pigeon. The common African roller is about 10 inches long, of a cinnamon color, strongly tinged with lilac below. The wings and tail are blue, tipped with black; the bill is yellow. It is a forest-loving bird, preferring the taller trees, although not infrequently seen about gardens, open shrubby places, as well as along the borders of woodland along the streams and about openings. It appears to be at times gregarious, though commonly observed in pairs, and is not shy unless disturbed. It is swift of flight, and easily captures on the wing the insects, chiefly beetles, locusts, grasshoppers, and the like, which form its food. It has a loud, inharmonious note, and especially during the mating season, when the males may frequently be seen fighting and chasing each other through the forest, it is a noisy bird. No nest is constructed, but the plain, glossy white eggs are deposited in cavities of decaying trees. The blue-throated roller, which is found only in western Africa, differs from the species just mentioned in the rich cinnamon rufous color of its body plumage and in its bright blue throat. So far as known, its habits are similar to those of the common African roller, though it seems to be less unsuspicious and more solitary.

The weaver-birds, of which Liberia possesses over thirty species, are small sparrow-like birds, with thick conical bills. The females are usually dull colored, but the males are often very attractively arrayed, the various shades of yellow, orange, red, black, brown, and olive being the colors which predominate. Many of the species are quite common, frequenting chiefly the plantations, brushwood, grassy plains, and similar situations, where they also breed. The smaller species construct a bulky nest in bushes, usually near the ground, but the larger ones weave the very curious and elaborate structures for which the family is so noted. These nests are composed chiefly of grass, woven firmly into the shape of a sort of retort, with the lengthened neck and open end downwards. Many of these are often hung close together; and even such colonies, of two different species, may occasionally be seen occupying separate portions of the same tree. The nests are sometimes suspended at the extremities of long, drooping branches, either over water or at a great height from the crown of some tall palm, the better to avoid the unwelcome intrusions of snakes and mammals. One of the most interesting of the weaver-birds is the one known as the widow, supposedly so from its dark color and long drooping tail-feathers. The male is about 12 inches in total length, the middle tail-feathers being some 9 inches long. It is black above and white beneath, with a large white patch on each wing.

Among the eleven or twelve species of kingfishers there are many of brilliant plumage. The malachite-crested kingfisher is about 5 inches long, rich blue above and rufous below, with a bluish-green head. It is tolerably common along the streams and about marshes, and may be seen often perched upon the bushes and reeds about the margin of the water. In habits it much resembles the common European species. Similar in appearance to the malachite-crested is the rose-cheeked kingfisher, which may, however, be distinguished by its black crown and white throat. It is very common along the streams, subsisting almost entirely upon insects, particularly flies, which it hunts in the thickets or above the surface of the water. Its nesting habits are rather unusual for a kingfisher, since it chooses a hole in a tree as the place for rearing its young. Several other species, of which the Senegal and ashy-fronted kingfishers are examples, inhabit the thick forests, preferably in the neighbor-

hood of water, living upon insects and lizards. The largest, as well as the dullest colored of all, is the great African kingfisher. It very much resembles, both in appearance and habits, the ringed kingfisher of the more southern parts of America.

The bee-eaters, of which four species occur, have been so named from the nature of their food, which consists of bees, wasps, and similar insects captured on the wing. The stings of insects do not seem at all to inconvenience these birds, though some other birds are known to be seriously affected thereby. The bee-eaters often nest in colonies, excavating tunnels in the banks of rivers, the plain white eggs being deposited in a chamber at the end of a passage sometimes 8 or 10 feet in length. The white-necked bee-eater is about the size of a small thrush, olive-green above, with a black cap and throat band, the remainder of the lower parts pale greenish. The two central tail-feathers are long and narrow. This is a very abundant bird, and is often seen in large flocks, frequenting river banks and wooded localities, where it affects chiefly the bushes and low trees, though toward evening it may be observed in the air hunting insects. The black-backed bee-eater does not seem to be nearly so numerous as the species just mentioned. It may be distinguished by its bright blue rump and abdomen and red throat, the remainder of the plumage being jet black. It is found principally in the wooded areas, preferably in the vicinity of water, where it remains much of the time high up in the trees, not appearing to be in any considerable degree gregarious.

Though possessing no close resemblance to the hummingbirds, the sunbirds have been commonly considered the Old World representatives of this very beautiful American family. About a dozen species of sunbirds occur in Liberia, and several are quite common. Many of them are very brilliantly colored, yellows, orange, and olive-greens blending with a great variety of metallic tints. The habits of the different kinds seem to be quite similar. They gather their food of insects, spiders, and the like, chiefly from flowers, not usually after the manner of hummingbirds, but while perching or clinging among the branchlets. Their nests are purse-shaped and pensile, constructed of grass, straw, etc., and are quite neatly built. The eggs are dull white with dusky markings.

Clad mostly in rufous, white, grays, and black, or olive-greens

the babbling thrushes form a group of very inconspicuous birds; and when to this is added the fact that many of them live in the underbrush and tall grass, where observation is difficult, it is hardly strange that their habits are imperfectly known. Some thirty species have been identified within the present area, but many of them appear to be quite rare. Their food seems to be chiefly insects and berries of various kinds. Several of the species are somewhat remarkable for the long hair-like filaments which spring from between the feathers on the hind neck.

Three or four wagtails are included among the birds of the country. One of these is the common European yellow wagtail, which occurs, of course, only as a winter visitor. This may, with the common resident species, be looked for along the rivers, where either will at once be recognized by its trim appearance, graceful terrestrial habits, and nervous motion of the tail.

The Old World flycatchers may usually be distinguished by their broad, whiskered bills. They frequent the forests and undergrowth, one of the species being seen almost invariably in the neighborhood of the streams. In feeding habits these birds are very similar to the American tyrant flycatchers. One species, the rufous-collared flycatcher, has a very loud call-note, which is remarkably similar to the cry of the hyrax. One of the most striking forms of the Liberian representatives of this family is the black-headed paradise flycatcher. It is about nine and a half or ten inches in length, inclusive of the tail, which alone measures six inches. In color it is bright rufous, the head and neck being deep black. The name paradise flycatcher was bestowed in allusion to the extraordinary development of the tail, which, as may be seen from the dimensions above given, is nearly twice as long as the remainder of the bird. About fifteen species of this family have been recorded from this region, some of them being quite common.

The drongo shrikes are birds of uniform black plumage, with very shrike-like bills. Two species occur here, one of which has the tail slightly forked, the other having it square. They are very similar in habits, frequenting, often in small companies, the woodland growth. They are very active, and are strong on the wing, though their flight is not often long sustained. Their food consists for the most part probably of insects. They have discordant voices and are very noisy birds.

Several of the fourteen or fifteen Liberian species of true shrikes are beautiful birds, some being of very brilliant coloration. The scarlet-breasted shrike is olive green above, excepting the head and neck, which are slate gray ; the throat and breast are bright scarlet, this color giving place to yellow on the posterior lower parts. The green shrike is apparently a common bird here, and may be distinguished by its olivaceous color above, combined with gray under parts and olive yellow flanks.

Only one kind of oriole has yet been found in this region. It is bright yellow, with black head and wings ; frequents the forests, and seems to be common and well distributed over the country. Fruits and insects probably form the greater portion of its food. A species of raven also occurs, and is apparently fairly common, as ravens go, especially along the various rivers, particularly near the coast.

The few starlings are very beautifully clad in shades of metallic green, blue, and purple, relieved by black and pure white. From the appearance of their plumage they are called glossy starlings or glossy mynas.

Of those very interesting birds, the touracous, there are about five species. The name touracou has been given in imitation of their cry, which is vociferously reiterated when they are disturbed. Their food consists largely of fruits. They affect chiefly the high trees in the forests, and the actions of some of the species in moving from place to place are interesting and very characteristic. Upon alighting in a tree the body is held horizontal, the tail almost vertical, then the head is extended forward, the crest erected, and the bird gazes furtively about as though to make sure of the safeness of its new position. Perhaps the most curious and by no means the least interesting fact in regard to these birds pertains to the red coloring matter in the feathers of the wings. This is said to wash out during heavy rainstorms, leaving the feathers a pale pinkish color, but after a time the original rich crimson is restored, and the feathers are apparently as beautiful as they ever were. The species seemingly most common in Liberia is about 17 inches long, dark metallic blue in color, the head, neck, and breast being grass green, the greater portion of the wing quills dark red. The head is adorned with a rather short, erectile crest. The great crested touracou, which also occurs, is the largest member of the family, being 28 inches

in length, and is one of the forms which does not possess the peculiar red color of the wings.

The hornbills are remarkable for their exceedingly large, hollow bills, which are oftentimes considerably augmented by a superimposed "horn" or casque, which has given rise to their name. With few exceptions, they are inhabitants of the forest, spending most of their time in the trees. Owing to the weight of their bodies, their flight is somewhat labored, though frequently sustained. Many of the larger species make a great noise with their wings in flying, and the sound is said to be sometimes audible at the distance of a mile; but, peculiar as they are in many respects, their nesting habits are perhaps the strangest thing about them. In the cavity of a hollow tree wherein is the nest, the female is walled up with mud by the male, only a small opening being left at the entrance. In this prison the female remains during the period of incubation, her mate faithfully providing her with food. Hornbills frequently associate in at least small flocks, and feed largely on fruits and seeds, some of the species devouring also snakes, while others take quantities of insects. All of the Liberian forms are dull-colored birds, ranging in length from 11 to 40 inches. Several of them seem to be common and well distributed.

One large species of parrot seems to be fairly common here. It lives in flocks, and, though rather weak in flight, it walks or climbs about the trees with ease. Fruits and grain form its chief food. It is closely related to the common African gray parrot, which is a very intelligent bird, being one of the best talkers and often kept in confinement. A small green parrot, or love bird, is also common in suitable situations. The name "love bird" has been given in allusion to the very affectionate demeanor of these birds toward their mates. They are frequently seen in cages.

The very curious habit attributed to the indicator or honey-guide is worthy of mention. It is said to attract attention by its actions and peculiar notes, then to lead one through the forest to the location of a nest of bees, and to remain to feed upon the honey that shall be left. It has been asserted, however, to lead sometimes to a leopard or a snake instead of the coveted bees' nest, so that it would thus appear rather unsafe, unless prepared for anything, to entrust one's self to the guidance of this strange

bird. The species of honey-guide inhabiting the present region is about the size of a small thrush, brownish above, grayish and buffy below.

Several woodpeckers of moderate size are found in Liberia, but they do not present any notable features, either in habits or appearance.

Among the cuckoos, six of which have been recorded, are two species of golden cuckoos deserving of notice for their small size and brilliant color. They are about as large as sparrows, rich metallic green on the upper parts, pure white below. They are said to be parasitic, like their European relative. The ground cuckoos, so named from their terrestrial habits, are rather stoutly built birds, with long tails and thick bills. The name pheasant cuckoo is also applied to them, suggested undoubtedly by their appearance and by the way they walk. Two are found here, both apparently rather common. Their colors are mostly rufous, black, and white.

The barbets, so named from the conspicuous bristles which project forward from near the base of the bill, are rather small, brightly colored birds, with thick bills, and of not particularly graceful appearance. Seven species inhabit Liberia, and some of these appear to be common. They are for the most part birds of the forest and brushwood, and spend little, if any, of their time on the ground. Some of them, at least, very much resemble nuthatches in their habit of running up and down the tree trunks without the use of the tail. Most of the species are to a greater or less extent gregarious; and they feed upon insects, larvæ, berries, and fruits, obtaining the two first mentioned largely from the bark of trees. They breed in cavities in the trunks of trees and lay white eggs. Their notes are loud and resonant, and at times they are very noisy. The hairy-breasted barbet is jet black above, spotted with yellow, the lower parts being pale yellow, spotted and streaked with black. Its name alludes to the very hair-like feathers which adorn the breast. The bald-headed barbet, as its name indicates, has the head devoid of feathers, which part is blue in life, the rest of the bird being of a brown color.

Seven or eight species of pigeons occur here, some of which appear to be restricted to the forests, while others occur also in more open places. The beautiful green pigeon is quite common,

and in flocks seeks its food of fruits. It is very good eating and is often killed for this purpose. There are also three small pigeons, pretty little birds, clad in soft gray and vinaceous tints, with rich metallic spots on their wings.

The crested guinea-fowl appears to be not very uncommon here. It is similar to the common domesticated species, but the head is adorned with a large feather crest. Another bird, the curious agelastes, about which little appears to be known, also occurs. It seems to be a compromise between a guinea-fowl and the ordinary jungle-fowl, having the head and neck bare of feathers and the legs furnished with spurs.

Aside from the two last mentioned, about the only land birds which might properly be called game birds are three species of francolins. Two of these appear to be common, frequenting a variety of situations and feeding upon grain, insects, and bulbs. They rather prefer running to flying, and are thus seen much on the ground, though they roost in trees. Somewhat less in size than a grouse, they are attired in shades of modest brown.

One pratincole, or glareole, inhabits Liberia and is quite common along the rivers, seeming to prefer the vicinity of the waterfalls. On the ground it runs well and much resembles a plover, but when flying its long wings and forked tail give it more the appearance of a swallow or small tern. Insects form its diet, and they are procured chiefly on the wing. The Liberian pratincole seems to be very fond of termites, or white ants, for it has been found with its stomach crammed with these and nothing else.

In this region there occur a few kinds of plovers, including a lapwing, which latter may be found at times in small companies on the savannas; the European whimbrel and three species of sandpipers have also been identified, but only as winter visitors, frequenting the streams and favorable localities along the coast.

Several herons, including a white one and a blue one, are to be seen in suitable places along the rivers. The black-crowned heron, the representative of our North American green heron, is abundant in the mangrove region and along portions of the rivers, where it may be seen sitting in secluded spots, close to the margin of the water. A species of night-heron might also be mentioned. Two different bitterns have been taken, these affecting the streams, where they are frequently seen perched upon the trees along the banks.

There is also one kind of stork and two dull-colored species of ibis. At least one of the latter is common along portions of some of the rivers, where in the early morning and at evening it is most conspicuous, flying in small companies about the high trees. It is said to have a very loud, discordant voice, and to be exceedingly difficult of approach. None of the four species of rails are of large size, and are nowise peculiar in their preference for marshes and swampy woods.

The peculiar finfoot or sun-grebe seems to be fairly common in favorable localities along the streams. In appearance this bird is superficially very like a grebe, but its actions strongly suggest those of a coot. It is exceedingly shy, and, being an expert swimmer, is difficult to secure.

Of ducks there are a few species, including a tree-duck, but nearly all seem to be rather uncommon, frequenting chiefly rivers and the immediate vicinity. Three terns, including the common tern and the black tern, visit Liberia during the winter season, and the latter seems to be very numerous, especially in the coast region. The yellow-billed skimmer is also sometimes observed. The African cormorant and a species of snake-bird or darter are found along some of the rivers.

HARRY C. OBERHOLSER.

LETTERS FROM LIBERIA.

MONROVIA, LIBERIA, *October 14, 1897.*

MR. J. ORMOND WILSON,
Secretary American Colonization Society.

DEAR SIR: Some time ago you requested me to report to you as accurately as possible how many coffee scions had been planted out in Liberia this year. In this letter I desire to show what efforts I have made to be able to comply with your request with some degree of intelligence and the results.

Soon after receiving your letter I had printed one thousand circulars, a sample of which I enclose. This number was not too many, as I have reason to believe, for there is not the slightest doubt that we have at least four or five times as many people engaged in farming.

I sent some of these circulars to the leeward counties, but have had no returns. Of those distributed in this, Montserrado county, I have up to date only one hundred returned filled out. In many sections parties whom I asked to distribute and return them say the people wanted to wait until they had finished planting the later or fall crop.

The partial success of the venture, however, is gratifying to me. Without the expense of a census, I have, at least, sufficient information to enable me to give an intelligent estimate of the number of trees planted.

As the planting season was not ended at the time of receiving your letter, I thought it would be more just to our farmers to ask the number of scions planted last year. The answers returned, however, include a part—say one-half—of this year's crop.

Then we have 100 farmers in Montserrado county who in one and one-half years planted 321,488 scions, which will give for 100 farmers in one year 214,326 scions. I think there are *at least* one thousand persons in Liberia planting coffee. By this estimate we should have 1,000 farmers who planted in one year 2,143,240 scions.

While this is a very safe estimate, based upon reliable information in my office, yet, as I had returns from only one hundred persons, I propose to try again. Some people living in remote rural districts refused to answer my questions, fearing that I was seeking to increase the taxes. I myself have planted within the time stated 6,686 coffee scions.

Your obedient servant, JULIUS C. STEVENS,
Agent American Colonization Society.

JOHNSONVILLE, LIBERIA, *October 4, 1897.*

REV. GREEN BATTLE, *Little Rock, Arkansas.*

DEAR SIR: My object in writing is to let you know the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth.

I left Savannah, Georgia, in the steamship *Laurada*, March 2, 1896, and landed in Monrovia, Liberia, on the 23d day of the same month.

I and all my family are well satisfied with our new home. The love of liberty brought me here, and I have not been dis-

appointed. I would not return to the United States if any one should offer me a free passage and $500 to carry with me.

Talk about money growing on trees! I have found plenty of men here who have money growing on trees, but they are coffee trees, and I expect to have money growing on thousands of my own trees in a short time.

The "International Migration Society" gave me all the supplies and food promised. I received more meal and flour than I needed, and sold a part of my allowance. I did not depend altogether upon the food brought from the United States, but immediately on my arrival commenced to make use of the native foods, such as cassava, eddoes, palm oil, palm cabbage, and others, all of which are excellent.

I have received my promised land from the Liberian Government, 25 acres and a town lot, and have my deeds to the same. On my land I found 1 orange tree, 1 mango plum tree, 4 kola trees, 35 bearing coffee trees, plenty of pineapples, bananas, plantains, and others too numerous to mention.

I have about half of my land set out with coffee trees, which are growing finely.

All my children go to school here, and all other children can go to school if their parents desire to have them do so.

A man can make a living here and not half try.

I am glad to learn that some of my friends in the United States are soon to emigrate and settle in this country.

Respectfully yours, CHARLES HAYES.

LETTER FROM BISHOP HARTZELL.

BULAWAYO, RHODESIA, CENTRAL AFRICA,
November 6, 1897.

MR. J. ORMOND WILSON.

DEAR SIR: I am here as one of the special guests of the British Chartered Company and Cape Town Railway people, on the occasion of the opening of the railroad to this point, nearly 1,500 miles north of Cape Town. Guests are here from several parts of South Africa and England, including Henry M. Stanley.

This town has over 4,000 white people, where eighteen months ago the Matabele war was raging and four years ago not a white man lived. It is in the forefront of white civilization northward

toward the heart of Africa. This point is 3½ degrees within the Torrid zone.

What God has in reserve for this country we cannot fully forecast, but that great developments are at hand is manifest. Rhodesia is as large as Europe, with gold, coal, timber, etc. In the part south of the Zambesi there are already 7,000 whites. The railroad will go at once to Victoria Falls, 250 miles farther.

I go from here to Johannesburg, Pretoria, Delagoa Bay, and Inhambane on the East Coast, and then to Liberia in February, returning home via the Canary islands and England, and arriving in America in May.

Very truly yours, JOSEPH C. HARTZELL.

HYGIENE OF THE TROPICS.

As it is better to prevent than to cure, we think it our duty to give some practical advice to young people who go for the first time to the coast of Africa. In this way they will profit usefully from experience personally acquired by the writer, instead of painfully acquiring it at their own expense, and they will see that excellent health can be enjoyed in the tropical countries by maintaining there sufficient bodily and intellectual activity.

People from the North arriving in the Torrid zone are exposed to two diseases, which are difficult to escape in becoming acclimated—dysentery and fever. As to the gastralgic and hepatic affections, they are generally only the result of the thoughtless obstinacy that makes us follow abroad the same regimen as in our native country. We shall see later that it is easy to avoid them by modifying in a judicious manner the food and the manner of living as the climate demands.

Dysentery always comes from one of the three following causes: Indigestion, bile, or irritation.

In the first two cases the cause of the evil must be made to disappear by completely cleansing the stomach, either by means of a purgative or an emetic. (Use ipecac by preference for the emetic, as less irritating.)

If dysentery comes from irritation, the use of emollients is very naturally indicated, and one should take the nearest at

hand—rice-water, gum-water, white of an egg beaten in a glass of water, etc.

Sometimes it is sufficient to eat certain fruits the properties of which are well known. It is thus that the French colonists use in Algeria the fruit of the *Opuntia tuna* (cactus), which they commonly call "fig of barbary." In South America there is the fruit of the *Annona cherimolia*, which the natives know by the common name of Chirimoya, and which the botanist Hencke calls "a master work of nature." It is in fact the best fruit known and one of the most beneficial. There is also the granadilla (*Passiflora ligularis*), a fruit as agreeable as useful, for it has besides its refreshing and soothing qualities that of being anthelmintic. The grape is also useful, being soothing and a light tonic, but it does not grow in very warm countries.

If, after having made the cause of the evil disappear, dysentery persists or reappears, one must use *Quassia simaruba* instead of the subnitrate of bismuth, which upsets the stomach, while the *simaruba* is easily drank and has only useful properties.

Simaruba is prepared in the following manner: The bark of *simaruba* is pounded, and the equivalent of a coffeespoonful is put into a cup of boiling water and boiled fifteen minutes. After the fifteen minutes of boiling, the bark is taken from the liquid in order that the decoction may not become too strong. This decoction is drank either hot or cold. Generally one dose stops the worst form of dysentery.

The *simaruba* is even more useful, since, outside of its astringent properties, it is a tonic and a remedy for fever—valuable qualities in a country where fever is so deadly and where it is necessary to aid the functions of the stomach. This bark has, then, the threefold advantage of being the most effective remedy for dysentery and a preventive against fevers and dyspepsia. For dyspepsia, one prepares the drink very differently; it is steeped by pouring a cup of boiling water over a coffeespoonful of the powder of *simaruba*, and is to be taken when there is loss of appetite, bad taste in the mouth, etc.

The interior temperature of the human body is about 37° centigrade, while that of the surrounding air is at times much lower. There is caused then a great waste of interior heat. To renew it we must turn to combustibles—that is, to nourishment (since clothing only *prevents loss* of heat), and this nourishment should

be as much more abundant as the exterior is more cold. In this case it is also necessary that the food contain elements producing the greatest heat possible. It is this fact which explains the wonderful capacity of northern stomachs and their aptitude to consume enormous quantities of the oil of fish and other fatty substances.

Therefore it is clear that, in a climate where the surrounding air has a temperature almost equal to that of the human body, the body undergoes only a very little loss of heat and has need of less nourishment, and this should be less heating. This indicates with what moderation it is necessary in warm countries to make use of butter, oil, and other fatty foods. It is the same with beer, which is a drink producing biliousness in the torrid zone, where the liver has too great a tendency to secrete a superabundant quantity of bile. It is better to substitute for it Chinese tea, which is the drink of the Asiatic continent and of eastern Europe, or the tea of Paraguay, which is in general use in South America, where it is commonly known under the name of "mate."

Another advisable drink is table wine, of which the alcoholic property does not exceed 17 per cent. With its tonic properties it can only, taken moderately, do good.

As for alcohol, it is necessary to avoid it entirely in whatever form it may be, since, because of its affinity for water, it dries and parches the stomach by absorbing all the gastric juices and renders it powerless to fulfill its important role in nutrition.

One cannot recommend too highly drinking only water which has been boiled, for it is known that boiling destroys all the bad germs which it contains, and experience acquired in the last cholera and typhoid fever epidemics proves that usually it is contaminated water which is the cause of the plague. If one has not at hand water sterilized by boiling, it can be sterilized immediately by the addition of a little citric acid or potassium permanganate in a dose of one or two centigrammes to a liter.

For a numerous and permanent party of individuals (station, office, factory, etc.) the process of Baron Tyler, very simple and less costly, could be used. It consists of an application of electricity. An account of it was given at the Exposition of Hygiene at Paris, where the inventor had placed machines for trial. Dr.

Roux, who was present at these experiments, endorsed the efficacy of this system.

We have spoken of water for internal use. We will speak also a word upon the necessity of bathing frequently, for it is not without well-founded hygienic reasons that bodily ablutions have been prescribed in countries where the skin should perform its functions very actively in order that by perspiration the organism may free itself of a great quantity of fatty substances, which, by accumulating, produce biliary diseases, to the detriment of the regular functions of the bile and the stomach.

The habitation should be, above everything, perfectly dry, for the least trace of moisture will inevitably produce fevers, either continued or intermittent, returning every third or fourth day. Therefore a careful investigation of the ground must be made before placing a camp or house. The habitation should be very dry, and there should be no stagnant or marshy water near by, for the mists (miasmas) which rise therefrom carry with them the germs of continued or intermittent fevers, from which it is difficult to free one's self and which threaten to impair in a short time the most robust constitution. It is that which gives so much importance to the careful investigation of the land that should necessarily precede the locating of a house or camp. It is also advisable to follow the example of the natives, who never live on the ground floor, but the floor which is farthest removed from the miasmas which arise from the soil after the rainy season.

We will say nothing of the manner of curing fevers, the use of quinine being general. Recollect that in default of quinine (which can be spoiled) the natives of all the tropical countries possess other remedies for fever which they always have on hand, such as *berberine*, which is beginning to be used in England. It is an alkaloid extracted from a tree which the natives call "berberon" and of which the technical name is *Nectandra Rodei*, in memory of Dr. Rodie, who introduced it into Europe. The *berberine* can cure fever in the proportion of 6 to 10 compared with quinine.

In Brazil there is the *guarana*, a paste made from the seed of *Paullinia sorbilil.*

On the banks of the Orinoco there is the *Galipea cusparia*, a tree whose bark, of extreme bitterness, known in commerce under the name of *Angostura verdadera* (or veritable angostura), has

tonic and fever-curing properties and is used in the country to fight intermittent fever and dysentery.

At New Grenada there has been discovered recently the *Simaba cedron*, the seed of which, known by the name of "cedron," is used by the natives as a remedy for fever and to cure the bite of serpents.

In Abyssinia there is the *Brucea antidyssentenica*, a bush of which the interior bark and the leaves are used for dysentery and intermittent fever.—*Le Mouvement.*

WHAT SHOULD EMIGRANTS CARRY TO LIBERIA?

In a former issue of the Bulletin I attempted to answer the question, "Who should go to Liberia?" It appeared that until the population of that country has considerably increased all emigrants will in reality be pioneers and must expect the privations and hardships general to settlers in new countries. Accordingly those who are contented in America or who desire to avoid work had better stay here, where some sort of an existence is assured, for in Liberia they must overcome many difficulties and labor diligently for years before they will find themselves in possession of a comfortable home and a steady income. Those of the present citizens of Liberia who have persevered through these years of probation find themselves in many cases in a position far superior to anything they could have reasonably expected in the United States. In addition they have the great and ever-present satisfaction of feeling themselves at home, out of the reach of unfriendly competitors and unwilling neighbors. Could the Negroes of the United States once realize the success attained by some of their brethren in Liberia, their whole attitude toward colonization would be changed. I do not refer to those who oppose colonization, but to those who believe in it as a refuge from unnatural and uncomfortable conditions. Instead they would come to see that emigration to Liberia may be an important step toward a more successful—that is, a more useful and manly life.

The difficulties which have attended the more recent attempts at emigration to Liberia have been explained in previous papers

and reports prepared by me, and attention has been repeatedly called to the fact that many of the causes of failure are removable, and in the interest of colonization ought to be removed. If a rational plan were in operation the outfit and supplies needed by emigrants could be furnished to them in Liberia much more cheaply than they can buy them here at retail, thus saving to them the expenses and uncertainties of transportation. As it is, they not unfrequently suffer serious loss in freight on perfectly worthless and bulky furniture or implements of which they cannot make the slightest use. In addition, they find themselves compelled to buy, at the highest prices, articles which they could easily have taken with them from the United States. For the sake of those who may be expecting to start for Liberia in the near future, it is well to caution against the more serious and common mistakes and oversights.

The first essential for a beginning is money. Until some colonization society is ready to begin work on a larger scale, there is little chance of a man making a good beginning without money. No matter how much a man has of clothes, tools, and goods, he is sure to need money for necessary expenses when he gets to Liberia, and as it will be necessary to continue these expenses for at least a year, no emigrant with a family should go out independently with less than two hundred dollars in cash at his disposal. Indeed, he will do better to take several times that sum. But here rises another serious difficulty in colonization. It usually happens that those who have money are foolish enough to let it be known, and they soon find that in Liberia, as elsewhere, there are many willing to impose on strangers. The emigrant is advised by his new "friends" to wait in Monrovia several months until he shall have passed through the acclimating fever or on other pretexts, with the result that he soon finds his resources much reduced, although no progress toward a farm has been made. He is continually dissuaded from going back into the country; finally gives up the idea and uses what little money he may have left in returning to the "States." I have heard it maintained that it is useless to send out emigrants with money, on the ground that such are sure to return. While this is not always the case, it happens so frequently as to form one of the most conspicuous obstacles to colonization. There should be a carefully arranged system whereby a colonization society

would undertake to guarantee the security of funds deposited by emigrants on leaving America, such deposits to be returned in Liberia through the agents of the Society. This would almost entirely eliminate the danger of loss on the journey, and, with proper care and advice in Liberia, the emigrant would not waste his money in unnecessary expenses, but might apply it to permanent improvements on his farm. The best advice for an emigrant will accordingly be, take all the money you can and keep it as long as you can.

Next to money, the most important thing to be taken is food. For several months at least the emigrant must buy his food, and it will be much cheaper to take a supply from this country than to buy everything at retail in Liberia. There is no use, however, in taking large quantities of provisions in the condition in which they are sold in this country. Flour, for instance, is liable to spoil in shipment or to deteriorate after arriving in Liberia, owing to the moist climate. Here, again, is a useful field for a colonization society. Many things which emigrants want and might easily have are out of the question, because the individual emigrant has not the business experience necessary to enable him to get what he wants. For the present, then, he had better content himself with two or more cases of compressed corned beef in pound or two-pound tins, depending upon the size of his family. Other kinds of meat—such as cured bacon, salt and canned fish—should be taken by those who can afford them. There is no use in taking butter and other luxuries unless they are canned, and they are usually not sold in this way in America.

On arrival in Liberia emigrants ought to learn at once to use the foods of the country as far as possible, and here is another place where better methods of colonization would be very effective. Not knowing how to prepare the native foods, the emigrants find them unpalatable or even injurious, and spend all their money on imported provisions and luxuries. Many delicious and nutritious dishes can, for instance, be made from cassada, but some emigrants who last year returned from Liberia complained of having been compelled to eat it, as though it were a great hardship, which it might easily have been if not properly prepared. Palm oil of good quality is a very serviceable substitute for butter and animal fats used in cooking, while rancid oil is very disagreeable and ruins any food with which it may be

used. Strangers are not likely to get the best a country affords, either in Liberia or elsewhere; but in the case of emigrants who have to pass through the strain of a change of climate an abundance of nourishing food is evidently a necessity, and it is probably far within the truth to say that a majority of the emigrants of the last thirty years have been seriously hampered, if not seriously or even fatally weakened, by lack of proper food. When one reflects that this has occurred in a country of luxuriant vegetation, where many food plants produce abundantly with but the slightest cultivation, the mismanagement which has attended colonization becomes manifest. The deficiency has been partially supplied by costly importation from America and Europe, while in a properly conducted enterprise nearly all the necessary food could have been raised in Liberia, indeed by the emigrants themselves, if properly guided and organized.

Let us continue, however, for the benefit of those who may still wish to try their fortunes independently. Clothing suitable for warm weather should be taken in considerable quantity, as well as cloth for making more. Strong ginghams or drill goods or cheap ready-made garments always find a ready sale in Liberia, so that the emigrant can dispose of any surplus to advantage. American shoes are also much in demand in Liberia, and every emigrant should be supplied with several pairs of good quality. Bedding—that is, sheets and quilts—but especially good blankets that can be washed, are most important. Feather beds should be left behind, though pillows may be taken, but with a sufficient supply of blankets comfort can be secured, and these are portable and cleanly.

Needles, thread, and buttons will be wanted. Needles should be oiled to prevent rusting. A sewing machine is also desirable if one already knows how to care for and use it. It should be carefully oiled * and packed in a strong box, otherwise it will be badly rusted and perhaps ruined during the long sea voyage.

Of house furniture only the smaller articles should be taken. Bedsteads, tables, chairs, and cupboards are almost sure to be damaged, and the freight costs more than the value of the articles.

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* For oiling machines and tools ordinary vaseline is cheaper and better than oil. It should, in short, be applied to everything made of iron which is shipped from America.

Guns are not needed for fighting, but a good shotgun may be taken by those accustomed to hunting. Fishing lines and hooks are desirable, and the latter can be used in trade with the natives.

Carpenters, shoemakers, masons, and others should take the tools of their trades; but nobody should expect to live from his trade alone, unless he finds out from reliable sources that there is an opening for him. Nearly all emigrants must expect to be farmers, and should bring with them axes, saws, nails, hammers, hoes, shovels, a pick-axe, and a crow-bar. There is no use in taking plows, cultivators, mowing machines, or other implements which require horses or oxen, unless one goes out specially prepared to secure, care for, and use beasts of burden. At present horses are not in regular use anywhere in Liberia, while oxen are used with carts in only three settlements—Cape Palmas, Fortsville, and Arthington.

A stock of quinine is also a necessity, as well as medicine for keeping the liver in active condition, such as compound cathartic pills. The use of quinine should be begun as soon as one lands in Liberia, in doses of about five grains a day, to be taken after breakfast. This should be continued for several months and gradually left off after the acclimating period has passed. Exercise is also absolutely necessary. If a man waits in Monrovia for the fever he is sure to have it, and probably in severe form; while with plenty of exercise, good food, and a small amount of medicine, taken in time, the change of climate may be borne without serious sickness or even discomfort.

Finally it may be well to repeat the caution that at present only those who have intelligence, perseverance, and some experience in pioneer life are justified in taking their families to Liberia without the advice and care of some friend or society interested in them. From the standpoint of colonization it is clear that little can be expected until we can come to realize that colonization is only begun when the emigrant arrives in Liberia. It would be much easier and far more advantageous for him to earn in this country the money necessary to pay his fare to Liberia and enjoy there the care and continued interest of a colonization society. In the past this care and interest has largely failed him at the crisis of his undertaking, when his own slender resources were exhausted, but before he had become a part of his new surroundings.

There is encouragement, however, in the very misfortunes of the past, for the success of many emigrants in spite of such obstacles is evidence that much might be expected from carefully selected, properly equipped, and intelligently conducted colonies. Effective management in Liberia would certainly advance the interests of colonization more than anything which could be done in this country. To ship a hundred thousand emigrants to Liberia would but insure a colossal disaster, while a hundred prosperously colonized would be an earnest of permanent success.

O. F. Cook.

PRESIDENTS OF LIBERIA.

Joseph Jenkins Roberts	1848 to 1856.
Stephen Allen Benson	1856 to 1864.
Daniel Bashiel Warner	1864 to 1868.
James Spriggs Payne	1868 to 1870.
Edward James Roye	1870 to 1872.
Joseph Jenkins Roberts	1872 to 1876.
James Spriggs Payne	1876 to 1878.
Anthony William Gardner	1878 to 1884.
Hilary Richard Wright Johnson	1884 to 1892.
Joseph James Cheeseman	1892 to 1898
William David Coleman	1898 to

On the 26th day of July, 1847, Liberia declared her independence and adopted a Constitution, which makes two years the term of office for the President. She has had nine Presidents, of whom seven were emigrants from the United States and two were natives of Liberia. The first President was inaugurated January 3, 1848, and the present administration is the twenty-fifth. President Roberts was elected six times, President Benson and President Johnson each four times, President Gardner and President Cheeseman each three times, President Warner and President Payne each twice, and President Roye once. President Roye was deposed by impeachment October 26, 1871, and Vice-President James S. Smith assumed the Presidency and completed the term. President Gardner resigned on account of ill health January 20, 1883, and Vice-President Alfred F. Russell assumed the Presidency and completed the term. President

Cheeseman died November 12, 1896, and Vice-President William David Coleman assumed the Presidency and completed the term. President Roberts when first elected to the Presidency was 38 years old; President Benson, 38; President Warner, 48; President Payne, 48; President Roye, 54; President Gardner, 57; President Johnson, 46; President Cheeseman, 48, and President Coleman, 54.

MARYLAND COUNTY, LIBERIA.

The early settlers of this county did not occupy themselves to any extent in agriculture for a long time after its first settlement. As an easier mode of making a living, they engaged in the trade of palm oil and camwood, of which the natives were the sole producers and the Americo-Liberians were merely the middlemen between foreign merchants and heathen tribes.

Within the last few years the enterprise of coffee-raising has sprung up and made highly creditable progress; but I regret to say that the Americo-Liberians have been comparatively less energetic in this industry than the aboriginal element of the population. There are now, however, the most favorable indications that our whole people will extensively and energetically engage in coffee-raising and other profitable agricultural enterprises.

Epiphany Hall, Cuttington, an institution supported by the Protestant Episcopal mission, is the most advanced school in this county. The greatest need at present is of good elementary schools with competent teachers. The schools that we have are at a disadvantage for the want of suitable text-books, modern appliances, and in some cases properly qualified teachers.

The Government is doing what it can to educate and civilize the natives, but it lacks the means to make this work either very comprehensive or effective. Many of the natives near the seaboard engage in service on the vessels engaged in commerce, and thus are brought in contact with civilization, of which they acquire a smattering. Two of these young men are now employed by the Government on our gunboats—the *Gorronammah* and the *Rocktown*—as assistant engineers, and have been found competent to manage the engines in the absence of the chief engineer.

The Government has recently surveyed a tract of public land at the mouth of the New Cavalla river and laid out a township. It is situated advantageously for receiving produce from up the river and shipping the same by the steamers that ply along the coast. Three other townships on the western bank of the river have also been recently surveyed and laid out by the Government.

SAMUEL W. SEATON,
Immigration Agent, Hoffman Station, Cape Palmas, Liberia.

WEST AFRICAN PROGRESS.

During the past few weeks the unsuspecting people of Liverpool have had in their midst one of the most striking personalities of African commercial life. In appearance Mr. Richard Beale Blaize, of Caxton house, Lagos, West Africa, is a robust and picturesque specimen of the race whom the resistless march of civilization is rapidly dispossessing of its ancestral land—the Dark Continent. Mr. Blaize is singularly gentle and subdued in manner, and though by no means fluent of utterance his English vocabulary is almost classical in its purity, while to his other accomplishments he adds a keen and well-ripened intelligence; but far more interesting than his external appearance and intellectual attainments is the story of his life, which might easily have been culled from the most fascinating pages of fiction. Mr. Blaize's career is a typical example of what energy, ability, and native shrewdness can accomplish even with the most unpromising material. He commenced life under wholly unfavorable conditions, and in the autumn of his days—he is now fifty-one years of age—he is reputed to be one of the wealthiest native merchants of West Africa, with a fortune at his disposal sufficient to fill even some of our own merchant princes with envy.

Mr. Blaize is the son of a couple of slaves seized by Portuguese raiders in the early forties. His parents were forcibly abducted with many others from Yoruba, a native settlement in the interior of Lagos. They were placed on board a Portuguese slave ship in readiness for deportation to the West, but the vessel was happily captured by a British man-of-war, and the imprisoned slaves, some half dying, others unfortunately dead, were liberated

in Sierra Leone. Mr. Blaize's parents were married in Freetown, and their son obtained a rudimentary education in a day school of that place. He inaugurated his business life as a compositor, and while gaining marked proficiency at the case he devoted a large proportion of his leisure hours to study and self-improvement.

At the age of seventeen, hearing that Lagos had been ceded to the British crown, young Blaize determined to seek his fortune in that town. The Government established a printing press at Lagos, and the youthful adventurer was immediately on his arrival appointed the chief Government printer, while it may be incidentally mentioned that only a few years later he was the first native African printer awarded the silver medal at the Industrial Exhibition held in Sierra Leone. He retained his governmental situation for twelve years, but during the whole period he had, with the sanction of the authorities, engaged in a limited trade in fancy goods. At the end of that time he resolved to concentrate his energies exclusively upon trade. Discerning the possibilities of the future, he resigned his service with the Government and went extensively into business, trading with Great Britain in palm oil, palm kernels, benniseed, cotton, clothing, boots, shoes, and any other commodity required by the natives and which he thought would bring grist to the mill. By unremitting application and by the exercise of a shrewdness and sagacity amounting almost to genius, he has conducted nearly all his business relations to a successful issue and has amassed a fortune which renders him one of the most conspicuous figures on the West Coast.

I met Mr. Blaize upon the Tees a few days ago (writes a representative of the *Courier*) and found him comfortably hobnobbing with such bigwigs of the commercial world as Sir Thomas Richardson, M. P., Sir Raylton Dixon, Mr. Alfred L. Jones, Mr. Waynman Dixon, and Mr. W. H. Davey. I was so impressed with his high intelligence and comprehension of matters far beyond the region of commerce that I asked him to grant me an interview in Liverpool a day or two later. Mr. Blaize, who is courtesy personified, readily conceded my request, and the interview duly took place in the smoke-room of the Northwestern hotel, where Mr. Blaize has latterly been staying. The conversation embraced an almost endless variety of subjects, and I must

confess to having spent a delightful afternoon in the company of this well-informed and interesting personage. One of the subjects upon which we touched related to the future of the West African colonists and protectorates. Upon this matter Mr. Blaize had several useful things to say.

"I hope I shall not be misunderstood," he remarked, "when I say that in my opinion the development of these regions would be more rapid if the Government officials would show greater interest in commerce and agriculture and everything that tends to bring out the resources of the country. I am both conscious and grateful for what has been done in the past by the governors in this direction. They have done most valuable work. If the present governor of Sierra Leone would give moral and practical encouragement to the development of the mountainous districts of that region, the soil of which is peculiarly adapted for growing oranges, pineapples, alligator pears, and other fruits in great demand in England, a vast trade would soon result, and lucrative employment would be found for thousands—a thing which is sorely needed in Sierra Leone today. I believe that the fruits would be larger and more luscious than those which you get from the Canary islands today, and I am sure the enterprising firm of Messrs. Elder, Dempster & Co., with such an active spirit as Mr. Alfred L. Jones at its head (we call him Great Jones on the coast), would quickly build a fast steamer to bring fruits and passengers from that region to this country. I have no manner of doubt that if my suggestion were carried out an extensive trade would be established between Liverpool and Sierra Leone at no distant date."

Mr. Blaize is no believer in the virtues of the Royal Niger Company. He pointed out that in addition to its administrative powers it has trading rights amounting in effect to a monopoly.

"The company have used their powers," he said, "to levy prohibitive duties upon other traders, with the effect of driving those traders away. Their policy is a suicidal one. If the river is opened to free trade the immense resources of the Niger will be developed tenfold, but the development will have to be brought about by civilized native traders."

"What course, then, do you suggest the Government should take in regard to the Niger Company?" I asked.

"We ask," he replied emphatically, "that the whole region should be opened to free trade, and that the Government should be transferred from Surrey House (the head office of the Niger Company) to Downing street."

"Have you any hope of getting this concession?"

"Well," he remarked, "we have been agitating for years and it is simply marvelous to every West African on the coast that this company should be permitted the continued exercise of these powers in spite of the representations we have made and the grave charges which have been preferred against its officials."

In answer to a further question, Mr. Blaize predicted a grand future for the colony if the Niger Company were only removed from the path of progress. He also shook his head mournfully when I interrogated him upon the profits he used to make compared with those he makes today.

"Competition," he pointed out, "practically did not exist in those days. I could make from 50 to 80 per cent., and I have even gone so far as 150 per cent., but now it is difficult to make 5 per cent. Of late years I have been compelled to curtail my business and altogether stop buying palm oil and palm kernels."

"Is there any falling off in the demand?"

"Oh, no, but the conditions are different, as I will endeavor to explain," Mr. Blaize observed. "Some years ago we shipped produce and remitted bills of exchange to commission agents in this country. Matters progressed all right, until of late years the very commission agents with whom we dealt came and established themselves on the coast and competed directly with us."

"Then it was merely a question of increased competition?"

"It was worse than that, because we were fettered with unfair conditions. The commission agents can buy direct from the manufacturers in this country, whilst the manufacturers will not sell direct to the native trader. I have given large and tempting orders to manufacturers, and their invariable answer has been, 'We dare not do a direct business with you, because we should be boycotted by the commission agents.'"

"Your contention is, I presume, that if the commission agents come to the coast and compete on the spot with you, you should be at liberty to come to this country and compete with them by dealing direct with the manufacturer?"

"I think that is only fair," was Mr. Blaize's rejoinder. "At present we cannot do it, and native traders have been driven out of the market."

Mr. Blaize further pointed out that he could neither sell direct to a broker nor buy direct from a manufacturer in this country. "If," he added, "I could do those two things, I would recommence my business tomorrow on a great scale. These very people," was his shrewd comment, "are objecting to the Royal Niger Company because of its monopoly, but they are exhibiting just the same spirit of monopoly in their business. I object to the monopoly in both instances."

Questioned as to whether this state of things was due to any consideration of insecurity of payment, Mr. Blaize remarked, "I hardly see how that can be. Some of us native merchants make such arrangements that the goods are paid for before they leave the River Mersey. Surely that ought to be satisfactory."

Another subject of conversation was the treatment of the natives, and upon this matter Mr. Blaize had a word to say which does credit alike to his judgment and to his heart. "I think the governors," he said, "should always regard the natives in a considerate way. They should not judge them by the same standard as they apply to Europeans, who have been for centuries under civilizing influences. Even the principles of right and wrong are hardly known to the African yet."

The reported disaffection at Lagos he attributed to the proposal of the governor to establish direct taxation. "I think you will admit," he said, with a humorous twinkle in his eye, "that direct taxation is repugnant to the feelings of civilized people. How much more offensive will it be to those who are only just emerging from barbarism? Whether the proposal is wise or not, it is certainly inopportune. People there have been complaining bitterly of hard times. Is this the right moment to impose direct taxation upon them? If money is the object of the government, they should raise the ad valorem duties and impose a higher specific duty on spirits, which are doing the country so much harm."

Upon this latter subject I was glad to hear from Mr. Blaize that not a single case of rum or gin was exported from England to the coast, but my patriotic congratulations were quickly dashed by his explanation that it was because we could not com-

pete with the Germans. "They retail a bottle containing nearly a quart for sixpence," he explained. "It is the vilest concoction conceivable, and you can imagine what effect it will have in a hot climate. I hope for the sake of humanity, if for no other reason, a way will be found to tax this wretched stuff heavily."

I asked Mr. Blaize whether, in his opinion, the advent of the European into Africa had been beneficial or otherwise, and his answer, very deliberately given, was, "Civilization has its advantages and disadvantages, but on the coast, when weighed in the balance, it is always disadvantageous to the African race. It is easier to copy the vices than the virtues of civilization."

"In what way has it been harmful?" was my next query.

"Well, in a variety of ways," he retorted. "Our people in their first passion for everything European imitated the European style of dress, mode of living, and general habits. These were not suitable for us. It would have been far wiser if we had blended the two—retained so much of our old customs as was suitable to our climate and physique, and utilized anything in your methods that would have been beneficial to us. I am glad, however, to notice signs of a change for the better. Instead of becoming Europeanized Africans we want to become native civilized Africans."

As to the morality of his brethren, Mr. Blaize made the significant remark that it was at its highest point when he was young.

"Their contact with civilization," he said, "has taught them new vices, which they have not been slow to copy." At the same time he warmly acknowledged the efforts of the Church of England, the Wesleyan, the Baptist, and the Roman Catholic Missionary Societies, which he believes are doing great good.

Mr. Blaize offered some intelligent criticisms of the methods of the Church Missionary Society. Whilst heartily recognizing the fact that it has been the pioneer of this excellent work, he remarked that its agents fail to realize that if Africa is to be evangelized it must be by her own sons. The missionaries, he said, stick too long in one place, and thoughtful natives are strongly of opinion that the work of this noble society, as he gladly describes it, would have shown much better results if the example of St. Paul, the great Apostle, had been followed. It is time, in his opinion, that the old field was left to natives, who,

he says, are not behind their European brethren in education and some of whom have already shown signs of their powers of organization.

I could not resist the temptation to touch upon a deeply interesting racial and ethnological problem. "What do you think," I asked, "will be the fate of the African race as the result of its encounter with Europeans?"

"I believe," he replied, with the utmost emphasis, "we shall come out of the ordeal triumphantly. Look at the Africans who have been transplanted from the land of their birth and forced to live under cruel oppression or amid uncongenial surroundings in the United States, the West Indies, and the Brazils. They have emerged successfully from the trial, and upon our native soil, I think there can be no doubt of the future."

The physique of the race, he explained, had in no way deteriorated except in the coast towns, and this he ascribed to the association of the natives with Europeans. He laughed somewhat bitterly over the action of the European nations in parceling out Africa among themselves "without," as he said, "consulting us," and said that the same tribal jealousies which made such a partition possible were also one great obstacle to the native prosecution of trade.

"If," he said, "we could combine our capital the native merchants and others would be able to compete with any outsiders." He added, however, that in this, as in other matters, history was merely repeating itself. "The African race is in a state of transition. It is stepping from barbarism into civilization, and the two always confuse one another. You will find in history that nations while passing through that transitional stage always do things diametrically opposed to their progress. Then the time comes when they unite and are irresistible."

Mr. Blaize apparently loved to dwell upon the future of his race, and in subsequent conversation on the point he expressed his firm conviction that the Biblical prophecy would be fulfilled before long, that "Ethiopia shall suddenly stretch forth her hands unto God." "The partition of Africa," he added, "will, in my opinion, precipitate that period by hastening the spread of enlightenment over the whole continent. Out of evil often comes good."

The conversation afterwards branched off in many directions,

into which it is quite impossible, within the limits of space, to pursue it. Mr. Blaize informed the interviewer that he is completing his eighth visit to this country and will return to his native land in the steamer *Bathurst* this (Saturday) morning. In one respect England has been a dismal and melancholy land for him. His wife died in this country two years ago, and in February last his eldest son, who was studying at the Agricultural College at Downton, near Salisbury, also succumbed to that dread complaint, pneumonia, which is as much the *bete noir* of the African as is the fever of the West Coast to the European. Two of his daughters have been acquiring their education in England, but in consequence of these calamities Mr. Blaize has arranged for them to accompany him to the West Coast and finish their education along with his other five children at Sierra Leone.—*The Liverpool (England) Courier.*

THE NEGROES IN THE CIVIL WAR.

At the outbreak of the war between the Northern and Southern States, in 1861, there were in this country, approximately, four million slaves. During the conflict nearly 200,000 Negroes were enrolled in the United States Army, comparatively few of whom were enlisted from among the free Negroes of the North, the great mass of them being slaves from the Southern plantations. The purpose of this article is to consider this fact in its relation to the present and probable status of the race in this country. The great body of citizens in the North who sympathized with the purpose of President Lincoln to suppress the rebellion were actuated, primarily, by love for the Union and a determination to preserve its integrity at any cost. Patriotism was the battle-cry of the hour. Among those who rallied to the support of the Government in its hour of need were many Abolitionists who disliked slavery, who saw in the civil war a possible means of its destruction and rejoiced at the prospect. It is safe to say, however, that these were largely in the minority. The greater portion of the army were either indifferent to slavery or were in full sympathy with President Lincoln's purpose to save the Union with slavery if he could, without it if he must. In the early days of the war, particularly, many of the Union

soldiers were quick to resent the taunt sometimes hurled at them, that they were "fighting to free the Nigger."

When the armies moved south they came immediately into contact with the Negroes, multitudes of whom flocked within the Union lines asking for service, protection, and support. For the most part they were a motley crew, many being in rags; numbers of them, however, both men and women, found employment as officers' servants, and accompanied the army in its movements, while for others contraband camps were established, where they were herded together and supplied with the bare necessaries of life.

When the question was first broached of enlisting Negro soldiers there was a very strong prejudice against it among both officers and men. The general opinion seemed to be that slaves were disqualified for efficient service as soldiers by reason of their ignorance and the servile spirit begotten by bondage. They could not be expected to be brave, it was said, especially when brought face to face with their former masters, whom they had been taught to respect, reverence, and obey. The introduction of any considerable number of such recruits was almost universally regarded as an experiment full of hazard and to be tried only as a last resort. Among the private soldiers the feeling prevailed that it would be disgraceful to have Negro slaves enlisted and put into the army on the same footing as themselves, and murmurs of discontent at the proposition and threats of desertion if it were carried out were frequently heard. Besides this, there was also a strong objection to arming the slaves and using them as soldiers to fight their old masters, on the ground that it savored a little of dishonor, and, further, that it would necessarily intensify the bitterness of the Southern soldiers and people against the Union Army and the North.

On the other hand, those among the officers and soldiers who favored their enlistment argued that one of the probable results of the war was to be the destruction of slavery; that consequently the slaves had more at stake than any other class of persons, and hence that they should share the burden of the war and aid in the suppression of the rebellion. Then, too, if they were to be free, their experience as soldiers would prepare them for freedom as no other experience possibly could. Few people in the history of the world have ever gained their freedom

except by fighting. It was also urged that they were essentially imitative and obedient; that they were fond of dress and of show, and would be particularly susceptible as soldiers to the "pomp, parade, and glorious circumstance of war." The certainty of their severe treatment if captured in battle would be an added stimulus to desperate courage. The fact that thousands of them were serving as officers' servants had indirectly proved a wonderful preparation for service as soldiers, for, although non-combatants, they had learned much by observation of the duties, trials, and dangers of army life. As the war progressed and the destruction of human life became more and more serious, there were not a few who sympathized with Miles O'Reily's sentiment that "the right to be kill't he'd divide with the Naygur, and give him the bigger half." As it was often tersely put by the soldiers, "a black man would stop a rebel bullet just as well as a white man," and at length the opinion of the army came to be that Negro soldiers, organized and disciplined, could at least perform invaluable service in the construction of fortifications and the guarding of forts, thus liberating for service in the field an equal number of veteran white troops.

In due time the enlistment of colored troops was fully decided upon by the Government; camps were established and the work of organization began. The policy was adopted of selecting from the Negroes themselves all non-commissioned officers, while commissioning as field and line officers only white men, to be selected chiefly from officers and soldiers who had already seen service. The general principle was followed of selecting applicants for these positions after competitive examination, and this resulted in securing for the most part men who were well qualified for their work. Unhappily, as might be expected, some who were actuated chiefly by personal ambition found their way into official positions in this service—as a certain colonel of my acquaintance expressed it, he "cared nothing for the 'niggers,'" except for the army rank they enabled him to attain. It is needless to say that his success as a commanding officer of Negro troops was not brilliant.

I entered the colored service in October, 1863, having been promoted, after examination, from first lieutenant, in the Seventieth Indiana regiment, commanded by Colonel Benjaman Harrison, to the rank of major in the Fourteenth United States Colored

Infantry. I organized the regiment and became its colonel; organized also the Forty-second and Forty-fourth regiments of United States Colored Infantry; commanded at different times more than five thousand Negro troops; was with them in battle at Dalton, Ga.; Decatur, Ala.; Franklin and Nashville, Tenn. At the latter place it was my privilege to open the great battle with a brigade of Negro troops and a brigade of white troops, constituting a provisional division under General James B. Steadman, who was in command of the left wing of the Army of the Cumberland, under General George H. Thomas. I thus had the opportunity of seeing a good deal of service and making a pretty careful study of Negro soldiers under very favorable circumstances.

Among so large a number of troops, so widely scattered over such a broad theater of military operations, under circumstances which varied so greatly, there would necessarily be as wide differences among Negro troops as there would be among white troops, and any general statements are true, subject to qualifications. Very much depended, necessarily, upon the courage and general character of the white officers who were appointed to drill, discipline, and lead them. As the war closed in April, 1865, there was not time enough to settle definitely and permanently the question of their soldierly qualities. The general ignorance which prevailed among them, very few being able to either read or write, militated very much against their highest efficiency. The contrast between the average intelligence of many of the white regiments of the Union Army—recruited from the best men of the North (farmers' sons, clerks, school teachers, and thrifty business men)—and a regiment made up of Negroes just out of bondage was very striking. The high character of the men composing the Union Army is well known. No less than six of its officers have been Presidents, and scores of them have been senators and governors, and large numbers have filled other high official stations. The private soldiers have been found in all the honorable walks of life—civil and political, commercial, educational, and religious. No such body of intelligent men was ever before enrolled in an army, and its effectiveness was due largely to the high average of its intelligence, as was the superiority of the German army over the French army in their late war. While the cardinal virtue of the soldier is

obedience, every experienced army officer well knows that the greater the intelligence among private soldiers the greater their efficiency in actual war. Among the liberated slaves who were enlisted as soldiers there were numbers of stalwart men, some of them mixed bloods, who had enjoyed exceptional advantages and who possessed a fair degree of general intelligence. Many of these men, after preliminary instruction and training, rendered efficient service as sergeants, and acquired considerable skill as drill-masters.

In very many of the colored regiments schools of instruction were established for giving the soldiers the elements of an English education, large numbers of whom availed themselves most eagerly of the privilege of learning to read and write. They showed themselves apt in acquiriug a knowledge of tactics, and some of them came to use their arms with exceptional skill. Gen. George H. Thomas, a graduate of West Point and an experienced soldier, said of the Fourteenth U. S. Colored Infantry that it handled its arms better than any other regiment he had ever seen. The courage of Negro soldiers was vindicated and thoroughly established on many a battlefield. I had a somewhat wide and varied experience in the army, was in several heavy engagements, commanded both white and black troops, and now, as I look back upon it after a third of a century, I am somewhat in doubt as to which class of troops, white or black, I should give preference for courage. The blacks were perhaps more dependent upon their officers than white troops were ; possibly possessed less of sustained courage under trying circumstances, but they endured pain with wonderful fortitude and were capable of romantic heroism, such as they exhibited at Petersburg. The fact that several regiments of Negro troops were incorporated into the regular army, where they have been continued ever since the war, is pretty conclusive evidence that they possess soldierly qualities.

The near and remote consequences resulting from their enlistment in the Union army were many and important. One of the most obvious is that it gave employment to nearly 200,000 able-bodied men who had been thrown out of their former service by the progress of the war, and had as yet found no place of independent labor. In addition to giving them something to do, it afforded food, clothing, protection, and wages, which

many of them used either in the support of their families or in the assistance of relatives or friends who were partially dependent upon them, and it was vastly better that they should earn this help from the Government than that they should receive it as a gratuity. It further served to greatly stimulate a healthy self-respect.

They are not wanting in natural pride and ambition, which even in slavery was a spur to success and a solace in sorrow. The tendency of slavery, however, was to degrade them, or, at least, to keep them degraded; to stifle the natural craving after recognition of their manhood and the rewards that follow such recognition. Slavery begets cringing, fawning cowardice. They entertained exaggerated notions of the dignity of soldiers, and looked upon the Union army as a heroic band of conquering heroes, with whom it would be an honor to serve, even in the humblest capacity. When they came to be enlisted as soldiers and to serve as a part of the great army of liberation; to wear a soldier's uniform, to carry a musket, and be addressed as "men," and treated with respect, they felt that the "year of jubilee" had indeed come. When they had participated in hot engagements, such as those at Nashville, Petersburg, and Port Hudson, acquitting themselves valiantly and winning the praise of their officers and the encomium of white soldiers, they realized, not in its full significance, perhaps, but partially, at least, that they had crossed the great gulf which separates between chattels and men. They had vindicated their manhood by the test which all the world has for centuries recognized as a severe one—the test of courage in battle.

It is to be recorded to the credit of the Negro soldiers that the instances were rare when they abused their powers. They "picketed" the lines through which Southern citizens passed and treated them courteously. They often guarded the property and families of Southern soldiers. They captured Southern soldiers and held them as prisoners, without injury or insult.

The increase in the Negro's self-respect was surpassed by the increase of respect extended them by others. I have already spoken of the strong prejudice existing at first against their enlistment as soldiers, and the sort of contempt with which they were looked upon, and it was my lot to witness a revolution in the public sentiment of the army in this particular. My regi-

ment had a beautiful camp on the slope of the ridge near the Tennessee river, under the shadow of Lookout mountain, in Chattanooga, Tenn. The camp was laid out with great regularity, was kept scrupulously clean; the men were well clothed, finely drilled; and when they appeared upon dress parade with their shoes blacked, their belts polished, their arms glistening, their clothes well brushed, with their white gloves, and went through their manual of arms with great precision, promptness, and enthusiasm,marching by companies from the parade ground under the command of Negro sergeants, they presented a most impressive spectacle. Tens of thousands of soldiers and citizens gathered to witness their parades, among them being a large portion of Sherman's army on its march to Atlanta. It was an object lesson whose significance was striking, eloquent, and instantaneously effective, helping to rapidly change the sentiment of that whole Western army regarding the Negro troops. The most common expression to be heard among the visitors after witnessing a parade was, "Those men will fight."

A signal instance of the prejudice which at first existed against Negro soldiers occurred at Nashville in the fall of 1863. At a public reception given by General Ward, an officer of a Negro regiment, meeting an acquaintance, the lieutenant colonel of an Ohio regiment, offered him his hand, which the latter declined, remarking as he turned away, that he "did not recognize Negro officers." When the matter reached the ears of Lorenzo Thomas, adjutant general of the army, the offending officer was promptly dismissed from the service.

Our first engagement was at Dalton, in August, 1864, when we had a sharp little contest with Wheeler's cavalry. The Fifty-first Indiana Infantry fought on our flank, and were so impressed with the coolness and gallantry of my men that ever after that, by way of pleasantry and of compliment to the Negro soldiers, it was very common for its members when asked the usual question propounded by passing troops, "What regiment?" to reply, "Fifty-first Colored." After my soldiers had charged and taken a battery at Decatur, Ala., in October, 1864, and had shown great gallantry the following day under fire, they received an ovation from the white troops, who by thousands sprang upon the parapets and cheered the regiment as it reëntered the lines. The colonel of the Sixty-eighth Indiana Infantry asked from General

Granger, as a special privilege for his regiment, that it might be brigaded with mine, giving as a reason that his soldiers had such respect for the Fourteenth Colored that they wanted to fight side by side with it.

Gen. George H. Thomas, a Virginian and a man of great conservatism, was deeply interested in the work of organizing and disciplining Negro troops, frequently visiting my camp, inspecting the quarters, talking with me, and conversing freely with the Negro soldiers. He once asked me if I thought they would fight, to which I, of course, replied, "Yes, General, they will." He said, slowly, "Well, I think they would fight behind breastworks." And when I replied to this that I would prove they would fight in the open field if he would give me a chance, he answered quickly, "I will give you that chance." At the battle of Nashville, in the final charge on Overton's hill, which pierced the enemy's line and precipitated his flight, black troops and white troops fought and fell side by side. As General Thomas and staff rode over the field after the battle and looked upon the fallen black soldiers he said to his officers, "The question is settled; Negro soldiers will fight." From that day on they had no firmer friend than he.

The addition of the Negro contingent to the Union Army was immediately apparent in increasing its strength and effectiveness. In the early part of October, 1863, I began the organization of the Fourteenth regiment at Gallatin, Tennessee, and before the enlistments were completed or any company organizations effected I was called upon by the commanding officer of the post, General E. A. Payne, to do picket duty. During the entire time occupied in the organization of the first six companies of the regiment we performed regular military duty, and as soon as the companies were fully organized and before they had time for proper drill or discipline we were ordered to Chattanooga, where the men were employed in the erection of fortifications and other service which had previously been performed by white soldiers. What was true of my regiment was true in large part of the entire force of Negro troops. Every man of them counted one as an additional element of strength in the army. Not only did those actually enrolled add their strength to the force in the field, but the fact that they would make good soldiers, and that a very large number of them were available

for that service, became at once an element of encouragement to the North in its stupendous work of putting down the rebellion. As the war proceeded it became more and more difficult to fill the ranks depleted by death, wounds, and disease, and there was a great public sense of relief and hope when this new source of supply was brought prominently forward.

While the addition of nearly 200,000 soldiers to the Union Army was an immense factor of strength, encouragement, and hope for the North, it was no less a factor of discouragement to the South. The one great weakness of the Southern States in their effort to separate themselves from the Union was the lack of men. It was said of them that to recruit their armies they had robbed both the cradle and the grave—that is, that they had enlisted both very young and very old men. The far-sighted among them early appreciated the immense advantage which the North had in the mere force of numbers. When the experiment of organizing Negro troops had proven successful the Southern people saw at once the full significance of this, since it took from their very homes the able-bodied, stalwart slaves, upon whom rested chiefly the burden of growing the crops which were to supply their armies, and converted them into an engine of destruction in the hands of their opponents. That the Negro contingent, therefore, exerted a profound influence in determining the ultimate issues of the war and hastened to overthrow the Confederacy no one can doubt.

When it was over it was recognized by common consent that the Negro had been an influential factor in preserving the integrity of the Union, and there was at once a spontaneous recognition of their right and claim to honorable and generous treatment. This was one of the great factors that led to their enfranchisement. In Congress and out it was argued that, as the States were to come back into the Union with their autonomy unimpaired, and that those who had been for nearly four years actively engaged in an effort to destroy it were to be reinvested with all the rights and privileges of American citizenship, it seemed only just and fitting that the Negroes who had fought so courageously to preserve the Union should share in these privileges.

It was said, also, with justice, that their latter condition might very naturally be worse than their first if all the rights of citi-

zenship were restored to their former masters while they were withheld from them. As they had fought against their masters on many a battlefield and had thrown their immense weight in favor of the Union and for the overthrow of the Confederacy, it was only natural to suppose that the white people, restored to their political power, would be swift to visit upon their former slaves and late antagonists severe retribution. So it came about that Negro soldiers were the precursors of Negro citizens. It is not at all certain that they would have been enfranchised if they had not been first enlisted; indeed, if after enlistment their services as soldiers had been discreditable, it is almost certain that the suffrage would have been withheld from them.

Whatever opinion may be cherished regarding the wisdom of conferring the right of suffrage upon the vast body of lately emancipated slaves, it must be conceded that enfranchisement marks an epoch in the evolution of the American Negro. He has retained the ballot until the present time, and there is no likelihood that it will ever be taken from him.

One of the immediate results of enfranchisement, and consequently one of the remoter results of enlistment as soldiers, was the education of the Negroes. The need of education for a free people has become an established truism in the American mind. If, therefore, the Negroes were to be freemen indeed, citizens of the Republic, vested with the power of the ballot, they, too, must be educated. This, perhaps quite as much as any other motive, if not the most powerful of all, has aided in establishing in the South by Northern Christian philanthropy, large schools for the education of leaders among the colored people. It has also been influential in the creation throughout the South of the public-school system in whose advantages they participate.

Looking back upon this question of Negro soldiers after the lapse of a generation, I confess to a little feeling of disappointment in its effect upon them as a race. It is quite possible that I expected too much; it may also be true that I do not as yet fully appreciate the ultimate influence of this single factor in their development. We have to remember that the four millions of slaves have grown to be more than eight millions of freemen; that as a race they are not students of history, and hence have not been as profoundly influenced by the Negro army of liberation as the American people in general have been

influenced by the Revolutionary army, and that they are essentially a peaceable, docile, trusting, dependent race, not warlike nor revengeful. It is still further to be considered, in making an estimate of a historical fact such as that under consideration, that 200,000 Negro soldiers, although a large number in itself, was really a very small number compared with the vast Union army of which it formed a part, and that they were officered by white men, who have received possibly more than their share of the credit attaching to the good conduct of the regiments which they commanded and led. The officers and soldiers of the Union army have been a dominating influence for a generation. The Loyal Legion and the Grand Army of the Republic have been factors of tremendous significance in the life of the nation. The national capital abounds in military statues, and expensive monuments have been erected there and in many other places to perpetuate the memory of those who gave their lives for their country. The Negro soldiers have had no great organization; no monuments have been erected to perpetuate the memory of fallen heroes, and the influence that has been excited upon the development of the race by those who fought during the Civil war has been incidental, indirect, and comparatively insignificant. This may be accounted for largely by the circumstances of the case. The Negro soldiers were illiterate, while thousands of the white men who enlisted in the Union army were graduates of colleges and universities or were men who had already achieved distinction in civil life. The Negro soldiers were poor, were ignorant of the power of organization, and on their retirement from the army dropped back into obscurity. The real heroes and leaders of the colored people have been, not their soldiers, but those who have been trained for leadership and usefulness in the schools established for them since the war. Then, too, it is perhaps fortunate, on the whole, and in keeping with the Divine purpose that the development of the Negroes should be along industrial, educational, and religious lines rather than as a military or warlike people. Their future seems to be inseparably blended with that of the white people by whom they are surrounded, and an independent career such as they might have if they occupied a country of their own is impossible under existing circumstances. While the success of the experiment of Negro soldiers has had, as has been indicated, a marked and

beneficial influence upon the subsequent history of their people, it has not developed in them the military instinct, but has fitted them for more complete absorption and assimilation into our national life as citizens of the great Republic.—*Thomas J. Morgan, in The Baptist Home Mission Monthly.*

MENELIK AND PRINCE HENRY OF ORLEANS.

[Prince Henry of Orleans return to France has given the French press opportunity to make known the result of his trip to Abyssinia. The following article on the subject is from *Le Soleil.* M. de Kirohant explains at length the plans of Prince Henry in regard to the organization of certain equatorial provinces which Menelik has placed under the control of Prince Henry and M. Leontieff.]

THE PLAN OF PRINCE HENRY.

Upon his arrival at Marseilles, Prince Henry of Orleans told our special correspondent that in three months he would leave again for Abyssinia with M. Leontieff, where they go to organize the administration and the colonization of immense territories that the Emperor of Ethiopia has conceded to them, reserving for himself only a tax of 10 per cent. on the many undertakings that will be made in these provinces.

It is truly a grand enterprise that Prince Henry is going to undertake with M. Leontieff, and its success can have for France, which is directly interested in it, the most important results, politically as well as commercially.

Abyssinia or Ethiopia, which is a collection of states, or, rather, of large feudal principalities, united under the supreme authority of the Emperor Menelik, is made up of mountains and valleys, in which a population of mixed races, numbering from seven to eight million people, is very unequally distributed.

The high Abyssinian plateaus are natural fortresses, thanks to which the people of this country, possessing true military qualities, have always been able to resist the assaults of Islam and to preserve their national independence and their Christian faith.

Of all the native States of Africa, Abyssinia is the only one that moves forward in the path of western civilization, and this

"African Switzerland," which is larger than France, is admirably situated to serve as the point of departure for those who wish to introduce into the center of Africa, still uncultivated and given up to barbarous and slave-holding populations, the ideas and the products of Europe.

The equatorial provinces of which the Emperor Menelik has granted the government to M. Leontieff and the colonization to Prince Henry of Orleans is an immense region recently annexed to Ethiopia, which extends south of the Ethiopian plateaus toward Lakes Rudolphe and Stephanie.

It is a country inhabited by Negroes, living without work, in a savage state, which actually produces nothing, but which, well watered by a network of rivers and streams, is of marvelous fertility, and if worked intelligently will furnish abundant harvests.

The products of these equatorial provinces, which are now principally gold and ivory, but which can be made to include coffee, sugar, cotton, etc., will find their outlet by our port of Djibouti when the railroad of Harrar shall have put them in communication with our establishments on the eastern coast of Africa at the entrance to the Red sea.

In confiding to M. Leontieff the administration and to Prince Henry of Orleans the agricultural and commercial exploitation of the equatorial provinces, the Emperor Menelik has very clearly shown his intention of depending upon France and Russia in his work of peaceful extension of Ethiopian power in the interior of Africa.

M. Leontieff is an agent of Russia, and Prince Henry desires only to increase French influence in Africa.

Abyssinian soldiers, under M. Leontieff's direction, will preserve order in the equatorial provinces. Prince Henry will organize the development of these rich countries with French capital and French colonists, mechanics, farmers, merchants, engineers, and master workmen. Here is an opportunity open to young Frenchmen who are not afraid to leave their own country and who seek a noble and profitable use of their intelligence and activity.

But, in the mind of Prince Henry and M. Leontieff, these equatorial provinces, of which they are going to make under the authority of Menelik a grand French-Russian-Ethiopian colony, should extend themselves toward the west as far as the White

Nile, where near its source military posts will be placed, which can later be connected by the Bahr-el-Ghazal with our advanced posts of the Upper Ubangi.

By the Upper Ubangi our explorers are trying to reach, in the center of Africa, "the country of streams," so called because it is traversed by numerous streams that empty into the White Nile. These territories are *res nullius*—that is to say, they belong to the first comer.

It is important to get ahead of the English; and a glance at the map of Africa will show that Prince Henry, in assuring himself of the help of Menelik for the French advance into Africa, has gained considerable advantage over the English.

The Anglo-Egyptian army has just taken Abou-Hamed. The English have already constructed one-half of a railway which is to connect Wady-Halfa, below the second cataract, with Abou-Hamed, between the fourth and fifth cataracts. They are going now to build a railway from Souakim to Berber. They may reach Khartoum before the end of the year.

It is, however, doubtful; and after the capture of Khartoum they will need at least two years and two campaigns to conquer Darfour and Kordofan, take Fachoda, and push Egyptian supremacy—that is to say, the supremacy of the British empire—to the Upper Nile.

We have explained what is the great plan of the English imperialists—the foundation of an Anglo-African empire extending without break from Alexandria to the cape, from the mouths of the Nile to the southern point of the Dark Continent. We have said that to realize this great plan, on the one hand it will be necessary to reconquer from Mahdism (for Egypt placed under the British protectorate the valley of the Upper Nile, which is a part of the empire of Ismail-Pasha) and join thus the possessions of the Khedive at Uganda and the English possessions in Eastern Africa; on the other hand, push the English rule in Southern Africa, first from the cape to the Zambesi, then from the north of the Zambesi to the great African lakes, which later will be connected and covered by English merchant vessels.

The English are carrying out their plans. They will be almost accomplished when they have conquered, under the Egpytian flag and in the name of the Khedive, the valley of the Upper Nile, from where they now are, below Dongola, to Uganda, of

which they have made themselves masters by driving out the French missionaries and exterminating the native Catholic population without the least protest being made by the French government.

Prince Henry of Orleans has found a most practical way of preventing the realization of this plan. Menelik, allied with France and Russia, sustained, if not materially, at least morally, by the Franco-Russian alliance, can bar the way to the English by establishing Ethiopian rule on both banks of the White Nile to the territories of the Congo Free State. The route between Egypt and the Great Lakes will be closed to the English.

England will have to renounce possession of an African empire stretching from Alexandria to the Cape of Good Hope, from the mouths of the Nile to the southern extremity of the Dark Continent. France, on the contrary, can, across the equatorial provinces of the Abyssinian empire, cultivated by her colonists, enriched by her capital, unite her colony of the Congo to her establishments on the Red sea, her possessions on the west and in Central Africa to her port of Djibouti, which will become the outlet for the products of Ethiopia.

This plan, which we have explained, is a blow directed against England. M. Leontieff is going to Constantinople to obtain the consent of the Sultan, who is Suzerain of Egypt and supreme head of all the Mussulmans. As for the consent of the Khedive, I think Prince Henry must have obtained it on the visit that he made him when he passed through Cairo.

If there was some excitement in England over this interview between Prince Henry and the Khedive there was good reason for it.—*Le Mouvement.*

MESSAGE OF THE PRESIDENT OF LIBERIA TO THE LEGISLATURE, DECEMBER 23, 1897.

GENTLEMEN OF THE SENATE AND HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES: Let us heartily thank Almighty God that he has blessed us through the past year as a people and as a nation and has enabled us to meet again to transact business for the general good of the State. According to the fundamental law of the State, it becomes my duty to inform you of the condition of the nation, and to recommend to your

honorable body such measures as I may deem expedient for your consideration. It is with sad emotions that I am obliged to inform you of the great loss the country has sustained, since the adjournment of your last session, in the deaths of Major General I. N. Roberts and Hon. J. W. Worrell, associate justice of the Supreme Court. Both of these eminent gentlemen were residents of Bassa county, and were well known throughout this Republic as having rendered great and valuable service to their country, both in church and state. We sincerely mourn their loss. The country has also been called to mourn the loss of James E. Moore, adjutant of the Fifth regiment. This young man had the necessary qualities and bid fair to be of great use to his country.

FOREIGN RELATIONS.

I am thankful to inform you that our relations with all the powers continue to be of a most friendly character, with marked improvement and assurances of special friendly interest for the welfare of the Republic.

The Government has given attention to an important event in connection with our foreign relations during the year. I allude to the *diamond jubilee anniversary of Her Most Gracious Majesty the Queen of England and Empress of India.*

The long reign of this illustrious sovereign has had such an important bearing upon the welfare and existence of the Republic, as well as upon the elevation and progress of the Negro race generally, both at home and in his exile, that it was most natural for this Government to give vent to some expressions of interest on that occasion. Therefore, in keeping with the vote of your honorable body at its last session, I sent a letter of congratulation to Her Majesty through the Hon. Henry Hayman, our consul general in London, whom I appointed special commissioner and chargé d'affaires to present the same. Mr. Hayman, who afforded another evidence of efficiency in the execution of the trust and fidelity, merits the appreciation of the State he so worthily represents.

Early in the year an invitation was extended to this Government to attend the Universal Postal Congress, which met at Washington, D. C., U. S. A., in June last. The invitation was accepted, and the Government appointed the Hon. Charles Hall Adams, our consul general for the United States, and Baron Von Stein, our consul general for Belgium and minister resident at Paris, to represent this

Government. Circumstances prevented the latter being present. Consul General Adams attended during the time of forty-three days, and has forwarded a very full report of the proceedings to the Department of State, a copy of which will be laid before you. In recognition of the valuable service of Consul General Adams the Government has conferred upon him the order of African Redemption, and upon his recommendation has also conferred an order upon Colonel Chaille, Charles Long, and Robert Stockwell Hatcher.

TREATIES.

At your last session you were pleased to ratify a reciprocal treaty for the engagement of Kroo laborers, negotiated between Her Britannic Majesty's government and Liberia, which has been transmitted to the foreign office in London for the exchange of ratification.

A similar treaty was negotiated in the month of July last with the government of the German Empire, which will be laid before you at your present session.

An extradition treaty negotiated with the Republic of France will be laid before you for ratification within a few days.

CONCESSIONS.

The year has been fruitful in applications for concessions for timber-cutting and mining operations. While I am disposed to favor the introduction of foreign capital for the development of our national resources, I think it advisable to be very careful in guarding the interest of our citizens. It is probable, however, that I shall ask your favorable consideration of at least one that I think may be granted with safety.

In the month of August last correspondence was received at the Department of State informing the Government of the injustice and hardships inflicted upon Liberian subjects who had been engaged for laborers on the coast, and after enlistment had been taken over to work on the Panama canal. The matter is having the attention of the Government, and in the meantime the British and American consuls at the place mentioned have been requested and authorized to extend protection to Liberian citizens until an appointment of a Liberian consul shall be made. In this connection I cannot too highly commend the act passed at your last session for the protec-

tion of native laborers, citizens of Liberia, going abroad for employment. No objection is made to their shipping for other ports on the coast if the parties are willing to go, but we are bound to see that no undue advantage is taken of them by their employers, and that they be returned home at the expiration of their stipulated term of service. The advantageous effect which your act of the last session has had to check the wholesale and indiscriminate shipment of laborers is very marked. This can be seen in the large crops of rice produced this year and the increased supply of laborers to carry on farming in certain sections of the country.

ABORIGINAL DIFFICULTIES.

There has been considerable restlessness in some portions of the interior and along the coast among our aboriginal population. By action of Government the peace of the country has not been materially disturbed, outside of its tendency to hamper the trade. There was a warlike disturbance between Parkler Tah, Bartarzallea, Marway, Marphie, Doblee, Zwie, and Doblee Zulue, combined on one side, and Jallah Kie Zoulu, of the Pessy tribe, and Ylasseah, Gaymah, and Santor, of the Dean-Golah tribes.

These men were heading large and warlike tribes on both sides, with a sworn determination to effect their war purposes, which threatened great disaster and ruin to the prosperous crops, the only life-blood to the native.

The Government saw that it was necessary to put on foot a commission, associated with the Secretary of the Interior and myself, to stop the warlike enterprise and effect treaties of peace between them.

I therefore appointed Hon. R. H. Jackson, Hon. A. L. Sims, and Rev. June Moore. By the order of General Jones to Colonel Dennis, of the First regiment, and Colonel B. Y. Payne, of the Fifth regiment, each furnished 75 men, under the command of Captains J. W. Howard and J. I. Thorpe. On the 8th of July the General handed these men over to me as an escort, under the command of Lieutenant Colonel J. A. Railey, from which number I selected 97 good men, and on the 15th of July, in company with my aid-de-camp, Lieutenant Colonel Capehart, Rev. J. O. Hayes, chaplain, and H. B. Hayes, secretary to the commission, we went as far as Suehn, when the arrangement was completed for the voyage, and on the 21st of July we started for Barnga, the town where the tribes were assigned by Parckler to meet us to enter into treaties of

peace between them. On reaching Bum-Bum-Mah, a distance of about 80 miles interiorward and about 20 miles short of Barnga, here we were informed that we would not be able to meet with those chiefs and head warmen. On close investigation we found that they were so bent on carrying war on the southeast side of the river to attack Jallah Kie Zoulu and his party that they had assembled their army with intention to cross it over before we reached this place, but our approach was much sooner than they expected. Being in their path, they were obliged to refuse to meet us, in order that their army might not be exposed to our personal view, finding by this timely move on the part of Government that the promising rice and other valuable crops would be saved and their plans disconcerted and war scattered, so that they would be obliged to suspend action for the time.

Not being able to effect the peace treaties as intended, we then instructed Jallah Kie Zoulu by messenger to stand only on the defensive until the meeting of the legislature, and if these disturbances are not settled before then and the treaties of peace concluded among them, then further arrangements would be made for their final settlement.

ROBERTSPORT.

At the request of the citizens of Robertsport, on the 28th of May last I visited this interesting port for the purpose of settling a long-standing difference between Jallah Varnie and Jambie, each living in the Vey section of the country.

After settling this difference, and in order that the peace which had been restored might be kept, I found it necessary to appoint Hon. R. J. B. Watson superintendent for that district, and I am pleased to inform you that peace exists and trade is flourishing in that section of country.

In order to protect our revenue in that section it is necessary to authorize the superintendent to place a constabulary force along our boundary line near the Mannah river, so as to keep the interior road open and to prevent smuggling goods from the other side into our country.

KROO COAST.

Superintendent Grant, of Sinoe county, reports the Grand Boutaw and Carbo Fishermen, at Blue Barrow, and the Niffau Carbo Fish-

ermen, at Sampleapro, near Don country, are tribes that live in continual open violation of the laws of the Republic. They are constantly stopping boats and seizing goods belonging to citizens, shipping boys, landing them when they return from the coast, taking from them whatever they choose, and disrespecting every order of the Government. He has recommended that the Government interdict Grand Boutau, and that some immediate steps be taken to put a stop to the violation of the laws by the other tribes.

Early in October the Honorable Secretary of State was fully authorized to proceed directly to Maryland county and settle some grave difficulties there existing which were likely to bring about serious national disturbances, and then to take passage on the R. L. S. *Gorronammah* to Sinoe and assist Superintendent Grant in doing whatever he thought necessary to settle the existing difficulties in the county; but unfortunately Commander Smith was unable, from ill health, to take charge of the vessel, and the other commander, from different causes, was much less able to safely manage the vessel at this point. Consequently Secretary Gibson was obliged to take the first chance for this port; hence the difficulties in that county have not been further looked after.

In consequence of the hostile attitude of the natives at Timbo and Grand Colah, it is thought by several traders well to interdict from Timbo river to Little Colah river. This I leave to your better judgment.

Within the last twelve months I have been fully convinced that all the tribal difficulties which cost the Government so much time and expense to settle from time to time are caused by the unreasonable and illegal interference of a few people living in different sections of the country, who on account of their conflicting trade interest often advise the natives against the decisions of the Government, intercept messages sent by Government, and excite the tribes to unlawful measures against each other. Therefore I most respectfully recommend that your honorable body pass an act declaring it felony in any person or persons to interfere with official messengers, obstruct Government decisions, or advise native chiefs, head men, or others to insurbordination or excite the natives to illegal and warlike attacks upon each other, and to authorize the Government to deal with all such in a summary manner and sentence him or them accordingly.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

There is a general hue and cry among certain classes throughout the country for improvement in the public-school system. This is not without just cause. It is evident that there is a wide scope and pressing necessity for improvement in the educational system of the country. You gentlemen, coming immediately from the body of the people in the different sections of the country, will no doubt be able from your own observation to adopt the steps necessary for the improvement of the present school system.

FINANCE.

The Secretary of the Treasury will lay before you his financial report for the fiscal year, with plans for improvement. There is one great evil that has existed for many years in the financial system which I hope you will check. I allude to the audited bills being passed around as a circulating medium. These bills are often so managed as to be used a second time against the Government.

AGRICULTURE.

This branch of industry has within the last three years suffered violence from several causes:

First, the farmers generally having planted coffee and ginger very extensively, it became necessary to secure improved machinery to assist them in preparing these articles for market, which they failed to do.

Second, the tribal wars caused the laborers to ship for other ports along the coast for employment, thus depriving them of their services.

Third, the sudden fall in the market of the articles of commerce in both price and demand has greatly inconvenienced the small farmers, because they had failed to give sufficient attention to those articles of produce necessary to be consumed at home.

PUBLIC BUILDINGS.

Superintendent Summerville, of Bassa county, reports that he has completed the repairs of the Government house in that county with every necessary office, and the basement is comfortably arranged for convening the court at the legal terms; also of the completion of

the custom-house at Lower Buchanan. I beg to call your attention to the fact that there is neither court-house nor jail in Robertsport. These buildings are very much needed in that district.

PORTS OF ENTRY.

There are one or two loyal tribes along the coast pressing their claims and making their earnest appeals to open one or two more ports. Settra Kroo, Little Kroo, and Krobar tribes have made several petitions, and I promised that the matter would be mentioned to your honorable body for consideration on condition that they furnish material sufficient to build constabulary quarters, 25 feet by 60 and 14 feet high, and a custom-house of sufficient size to accommodate the necessary officers. This they have pledged themselves to do if the port be granted. They also pledge to pay a head tax for the support of the constabulary; also a school and navy tax. It is thought advisable by many persons of position in Maryland county to have a port opened at Half Cavalla.

CONCLUSION.

Gentlemen of the Senate and House of Representatives, though things are handed to us in dark colors, I feel confident that with your coöperation and our joint sacrifice for the upbuilding of this nation we shall succeed in scaling the mountain of obstacles.

BASUTOLAND.

Basutoland is a comparatively small territory (10,300 square miles), somewhat larger than Wales or Massachusetts. It is nearly all mountainous, and contains the highest summits in South Africa, some of them reaching 11,000 feet. Few European travelers visit it, for it lies quite away from the main routes. It has no commercial importance, and its white population is extremely small, the land being reserved for the natives alone. We were attracted to it by what we had heard of the scenery, but found, when we came to traverse it, that the social conditions were no less interesting than the landscapes. * * *

Basutoland is the Switzerland of South Africa, and very appropriately is the part of South Africa where the old inhabitants, de-

fended by their hills, have retained the largest measure of freedom. Although most of it is covered with lofty mountains, it has, like Switzerland, one comparatively level and fertile tract, that which lies along the left bank of the Caledon river. Morija, the oldest French mission station, lies in a pretty hollow between five and six thousand feet above the sea—nearly all Basutoland is above 5,000 feet—some sixteen miles southeast from Maseru. Groves of trees and luxuriant gardens give softness and verdure to the landscape, and among them the mission-houses and schools and printing-house, whence Basuto books are issued, lie scattered about up and down the slopes of the hill. Though there are plenty of streams in Basutoland, there is hardly any swampy ground, and consequently little or no fever, so the missionaries invalided from the Zambesi frequently come here to recruit. Morija is now, and has been for many years past, in the hands of Scottish Presbyterian clergymen, of course under the direction of the Paris Society, and they gave us a hearty welcome. They have large and flourishing schools, from which a considerable number of young Kafirs go out every year among their countrymen and become an effective civilizing influence. There is among the Bantu tribes so little religion, in the European sense of the word, that the natives seem never to have felt the impulse to persecute and hardly ever to obstruct the preaching of Christianity. When opposition comes, it comes from the witch-doctor or medicine-man, who feels his craft in danger; seldom from the chief. Here most of the leading men have been and still are on good terms with the missionaries. The paramount chief of the whole country lives three miles from Morija, at Matsieng, where he has established, as the wont of the Kafirs is, a new kraal on the top of a breezy hill, forsaking the residence of his father in the valley beneath. Here we visited him.

Lerothodi, the paramount chief, is the son of Letsie and grandson of Moshesh, and now ranks with Khama as the most important native potentate south of the Zambesi. He is a strong, thickset man, who looks about fifty years of age, and is not wanting either in intelligence or in firmness. He was dressed in a gray shooting coat and trousers of gray cloth, with a neat new black low-crowned hat, and received the (deputy) acting commissioner and ourselves in a stone house which he has recently built as a sort of council-chamber and reception-room for white visitors. Hard by, another house, also of stone, was being erected to lodge such visitors, and over its door-

way a native sculptor had carved the figure of a crocodile, the totem of the Basutos. When a chief sits to administer justice among the tribesmen, as he does on most mornings, he always sits in the open air, a little way from his sleeping-huts. We found a crowd of natives gathered at the levee, whom Lerothodi quitted to lead us into the reception-room. He was accompanied by six or seven magnates and counselors—one of the most trusted counselors (a Christian) was not a person of rank, but owed his influence to his character and talents—and among these one spoke English and interpreted to us the compliments which Lerothodi delivered, together with his assurances of friendship and respect for the protecting power, while we responded with phrases of similar friendliness. The counselors, listening with profound and impressive gravity, echoed the sentences of the chief with a chorus of "ehs," a sound which it is hard to reproduce by letters, for it is a long, slow, deep expiration of the breath in a sort of singing tune. The Kafirs constantly use it to express assent and appreciation, and manage to throw a great deal of apparent feeling into it. Presently one or two of them spoke, one in pretty good English, dilating on the wish of the Basuto native to be guided in the path of prosperity by the British government. Then Lerothodi led us out and showed us, with some pride, the new guest-house he was building, and the huts inhabited by his wives, all scrupulously neat. Each hut stands in an enclosure surrounded by a tall fence of reeds, and the floors of red clay were perfectly hard, smooth, and spotlessly clean. The news of the reception accorded shortly before (in London) to Khama had kindled in him a desire to visit England, but his hints thrown out to that effect were met by the acting commissioner's remark that Khama's total abstinence and general hostility to the use of intoxicants had been a main cause for the welcome given him, and that if other chiefs desired like treatment in England they had better emulate Khama. This shot went home. * * *

At last, as night fell, we dropped into the valley of the Kaloe itself, and so, slowly through the darkness, for the horses were tired and the track (which crosses the river four times) was rough and stony, came at last to the mission station of Thaba Bosiyo. Here we were welcomed by the Swiss pastor in charge of the mission, Mr. E. Jacottet, whose collections of Basuto and Barotse popular tales have made him well known to the students of folk-lore. No man knows the Basutos better than he and his colleague, Mr. Dyke, of

Morija, and what they told us was of the highest interest. Next day was Sunday, and gave us the opportunity of seeing a large congregation of Basuto converts and of hearing their singing, the excellence of which reminded us of the singing of Negro congregations in the Southern States of America. We had also two interesting visits. One was from an elderly Basuto magnate of the neighborhood, who was extremely anxious to know if Queen Victoria really existed or was a mere figment of the British government. He had met many white men, he told us, but none of them had ever seen the Queen, and he could not imagine how it was possible that a great chieftainess should not be seen by her people. We satisfied his curiosity by giving full details of the times, places, and manner in which the British sovereign receives her subjects, and he went away, declaring himself convinced and more loyal than ever. The second visitor was a lady who had come to attend church. She is the senior wife of a chief named Thekho, a son of Moshesh. She impressed us as a person of great force of character and great conversational gifts, was dressed in a fashionable hat and an enormous black velvet mantle, and plied us with numerous questions regarding the Queen, her family, and her government. She lives on the hill among her dependents, exerts great influence, and has done good service in resisting the reactionary tendencies of her brother-in-law, Masupha, a dogged and turbulent old pagan. * * *

The Basutos came (in 1871) under the administrative control of Cape Colony. Moshesh, their chief, died soon afterward, full of years and honor, and leaving a name which has become famous in South Africa. He was one of the remarkable instances, like Toussaint L'Ouverture and the Hawaiian King Kamehameha the First, of a man, sprung from a savage race, who effected great things by a display of wholly exceptional gifts. His sayings have become proverbs in native mouths. One of them is worth noting as a piece of grim humor, a quality rare among the Kafirs. Some of his chief men had been urging him, after he had become powerful, to take vengeance upon certain cannibals who were believed to have killed and eaten his grandparents. Moshesh replied: "I must consider well before I disturb the sepulchers of my ancestors." Basutoland remained quiet till 1879, when the Cape government, urged, it would appear, by the restless spirit of Sir Bartle Frere (then governor), conceived the unhappy project of disarming the Basutos. It was no doubt a pity that so many of them possessed firearms; but

it would have been better to let them keep their weapons than to provoke a war, and the Cape prime minister, who met the nation in its great popular assembly, the Pitso, had ample notice through the speeches delivered there by important chiefs of the resistance with which any attempt to enforce disarmament would be met. However, rash counsels prevailed. The attempt was made in 1880; war followed, and the Basutos gave the colonial troops so much trouble that in 1883 the colony proposed to abandon the territory altogether. Ultimately, in 1884, the imperial government took it over, and has ever since administered it by a resident commissioner.

The Basuto nation, which had been brought very low at the time when Moshesh threw himself upon the British government for protection, has latterly grown rapidly and now numbers over 220,000 souls. * * *

The natives, however, go in large numbers—in 1895–'96 as many as 28,000 went out—to work in the mines at Kimberly and on the Witwatersrand, and bring back savings, which have done much to increase the prosperity of the tribe. At present they seem fairly contented and peaceable. The land belongs to the nation, and all may freely turn their cattle on the untilled parts. Fields, however, are allotted to each householder by the chief to be tilled, and the tenant, protected by public opinion, retains them as long as he tills them. He cannot sell them, but they will pass to his children. Ordinary administration, which consists mainly in the allotment and management of land, is left to the chief, as also ordinary jurisdiction, both civil and criminal. The present tendency is for the disposing power of the chief over the land to increase, and it is possible that British law may ultimately turn him, as it turned the head of an Irish sept, into an owner. The chief holds his court at his kraal, in the open air, settles disputes and awards punishments. There are several British magistrates to deal with grave offenses, and a force of 220 native police, under British officers. Lerothodi, as the successor of Moshesh, is paramount chief of the nation, and all the greater chieftainships under him are held by his uncles and cousins, sons and grandsons of the founder of the dynasty, while there are also a few chiefs of the second rank belonging to other families. Some of the uncles, especially Masupha, who lives at the foot of Thaba Bosiyo, and is an obstinately conservative heathen, give trouble both to Lerothodi and to the British commissioner, their quarrels turning mainly on questions of land and frontier. But, on the whole, things

go on as well as can be expected in such a world as the present. Disturbances tend to diminish, and the horses or cattle that are occasionally stolen from the Free State farmers are always recovered for their owners, unless they have been got away out of Basutoland into the colonial territories to the south and west. As far back as 1855 Moshesh forbade the "smelling out" of witches, and now the British authorities have suppressed the more noxious or offensive kinds of ceremonies practised by the Kafirs. Otherwise they interfere as little as may be with native ways, trusting to time, peace, and the missionaries to secure the gradual civilization of the people. Once a year the commissioner meets the whole people in their national assembly, called the Pitso—the name is derived from their verb "to call"—which in several points recalls the agora or assembly of freemen described in the Homeric poems. The paramount chief presides, and debate is mainly conducted by the chiefs, but all freemen, gentle and simple, have a right to speak in it. There is no voting, only a declaration, by shouts, of the general feeling. Though the paramount chief has been usually the person who convokes it, a magnate lower in rank might always, like Achilles in the Iliad, have it summoned when a fitting occasion arose; and it was generally preceded by a consultation among the leading men, though I could not discover that there was any regular council of chiefs. In all these points the resemblance to the primary assemblies of the early peoples of Europe is close enough to add another to the arguments, already strong, which discredit the theory that there is any such thing as an "Aryan type" of institutions, and which suggest the view that in studying the politics of primitive nations we must not take affinities of language as the basis of a classification.

Today the Pitso has lost much of its old importance, and tends to become a formal meeting, in which the British commissioner causes new regulations to be read aloud, inviting discussion on points which any one present may desire to raise, and addresses the people, awarding praise or blame, and adding such exhortations as he thinks seasonable. The missionaries and the chief British officials are usually present. I read through the shorthand report of the great Pitso held in 1879, at which the question of disarmament was brought forward by the Cape prime minister, and was struck by the freedom and intelligence with which the speakers delivered their views. One observed: "This is our parliament, though it is a very disorderly parliament, because we are all mixed up, young and old, and we cannot

accept any measure without discussion." Another commented severely upon an unhappy phrase that had been used at Cape Town by a member of the Cape government: "Mr. U. said the Basutos were the natural enemies of the white man, because we were black. Is that language which should be used by a high officer of the government? Let sentiments like these pass away. We are being educated to believe that all people are equal, and feel that sentiments like these are utterly wrong." A third claimed that the people must keep their guns, because "at our circumcision we were given a shield and an assagai, and told never to part with them, and that if ever we came back from an expedition and our shield and assagai were not found before our house we should die the death." And a fourth, wishing to excuse any vehement expression he might use, observed: "We have a proverb which says that a man who makes a mistake in a public assembly cannot be killed." In this proverb there is the germ of the English "privilege of Parliament." It is easy to gather from the whole proceedings of these Pitsos how much more popular government has been among the Basutos than it was among the Zulus or Matabili. Tshaka or Lo Bengula would in a moment have had the neck twisted of any one who ventured to differ publicly from his opinion. * * *

Nowhere has the gospel made such progress among the Kafirs as in Basutoland. The missionaries—French Protestants, Roman Catholic, and English Episcopalians—working not only independently, but on very different lines, have brought nearly fifty thousand natives under Christian influences, as members or adherents. Not all of these are baptized converts. The Franco-Scottish missionaries, by whom far the largest part of the work has been done, tell me that baptisms do not increase fast, and they are wise in not measuring the worth of their work by the number of baptisms. Education is spreading. At the last public examinations at the Cape the French Protestant missionaries sent up twenty Basuto boys, of whom ten passed in honors and ten in high classes, the standard being the same for whites and blacks. There are now one hundred and fifty schools in the country, all but two of which are conducted by the missionaries. * * *

The material progress of the people has been aided by the enactment of stringent laws against the sale of white men's intoxicating liquors, though some of the chiefs show but a poor example of obedience to these laws, the enforcement of which is rendered difficult

by the illicit sale which goes on along the frontiers where Basutoland touches the Free State and the eastern part of Cape Colony. The old native arts and industries decline as European goods become cheaper, and industrial training has now become one of the needs of the people. It is an encouraging sign that, under the auspices of Lerothodi, a sum of £3,184 ($16,000) was collected from the tribe in 1895–'96 for the foundation of an institution to give such training. The receipts from import duties have so much increased that the contribution of £18,000 paid by Cape Colony is now annually reduced by nearly £12,000, and the hut tax of ten shillings per hut, now easily and promptly collected, amounts to £23,000 a year, leaving a surplus, out of which £1,300 is paid to the Cape. Basutoland is within the South African Customs Union.

These facts are encouraging. They show that so far the experiment of leaving a native race to advance in their own way, under their own chiefs, but carefully supervised by imperial officers, has proved successful. A warlike, unstable, and turbulent, although intelligent, people, while increasing fast in wealth and material comfort, has also become more peaceful and orderly, and by the abandonment of its more repulsive customs is passing from savagery to a state of semi-civilization. Still the situation has its anxieties. The very prosperity of the country has drawn into it a larger population than the arable and pastoral land may prove able to support. The Free State people are not friendly to it and many politicians in Cape Colony would like to recover it for the colony, while many white adventurers would like to prospect for mines or to oust the natives from the best lands. The natives themselves are armed, and, being liable, like all natives, to sudden fits of unreason, may conceivably be led into disorders which would involve a war and the regular conquest of the country. The firmness, as well as the conciliatory tactfulness, which the first commissioner, Sir Marshal Clarke, and his successor, the present acting commissioner, have shown has hitherto averted these dangers and has inspired the people with a belief in the good will of the government. If the progress of recent years can be maintained for thirty years more, the risk of trouble will have almost disappeared, for by that time a new generation, unused to war, will have grown up. Whoever feels for the native and cares for his future must wish a fair chance for the experiment that is now being tried in Basutoland of letting him develop in his own way, shielded from the rude pressure of the whites. —*James Bryce in "Impressions of South Africa."*

ITEMS.

BISHOP TAYLOR'S INDUSTRIAL MISSION.—The Christian world justly admires the courage and Christian devotion of Bishop Taylor and the men associated with him in the attempt to establish industrial missions in Africa. We would by no means fail to give them their due meed of praise, though their proposed method of operation never commended itself to our judgment; but we have often been told that the scheme on which the good bishop planned to prosecute his evangelistic work ought to displace the methods heretofore adopted and now in use by most missionary boards. Not a few individuals and churches have withdrawn their support from the older organizations in order to contribute to this new effort, which seemed to them so economical and effective and was prosecuted with such heroic faith and confidence in God; but experience must decide as to what is wise and economical. It is a question of methods. Certainly, in answer to that question, facts should be made known. It is with no desire to discredit what has been done, but solely to aid our friends in judging as to the best methods for prosecuting the work of evangelizing the world that we call attention to facts recently presented from the most reliable source in reference to Bishop Taylor's industrial missions in Africa. Bishop Hartzell, of the Methodist church, the successor of Bishop Taylor, has just made his first tour of these industrial missions, and he reports the results as he now finds them 10 years from the commencement of Bishop Taylor's work. Within that period 50 stations have been opened and 88 missionaries sent from foreign countries, most of them from America. Bishop Hartzell states that "the results have, as a whole, been disappointing," and he gives the following facts. The expenses of the stations were far beyond anything anticipated, and many of the missionaries sent out proved themselves unfit for their work. Only 13 of the 88 persons sent out 10 years ago are now in the field—4 preachers, 1 layman, and eight women. Some have gone to other churches, but most of them have returned home. Of the 50 stations opened, 29 are said to be occupied, but of the 29 "fully one-half are doing but little." As to the outcome of the industrial work, Bishop Hartzell states that coffee-raising was depended upon largely as a source of income, but of the 45,000 or 50,000 coffee trees planted "scarcely 15,000 have been saved from being choked to death by grass and bushes," and that after careful inquiry at the 29 stations now occupied he finds that the total amount of coffee sold will not exceed $200 worth.—*Missionary Herald.*

THE WESTERN SAHARA.—Among the portions of the world about which but little is yet known to Europeans may be classed an immense tract of Africa, stretching between the fever belt of the West Coast on the south

and Morocco, Algiers, and Fez on the north. Beyond the European Coast settlements of Senegal, Sierra Leone, Ivory Coast, Gold Coast, and the vast domains of the Royal Niger Company lies a region vaguely spoken of as the "Hinterland," or the Western Soudan, in which few white men have ever been, where, according to the reports of Negro traders from the interior, is a healthy country of forest and rolling upland, abounding in many kinds of natural riches: valuable gums, choicest hardwood, alluvial gold, and ostriches. Further north, though where it begins and the Soudan ends is still undefined, lies the Sahara, or, as it is very incorrectly described in the older geographies, "the Great Desert." The writer has heard men well qualified to speak on the matter discuss this region; traders from the lonely reaches of the Gambia, French officers from the Senegal frontier, and officials of the Royal Niger who have spent some time on the upper waters of the Kwara river, to all of which points occasional caravans of Arabs, Berbers, and Negroes with Arab blood in them gather from time to time, bringing merchandise from the far interior. The consensus of opinion seems to be, that while there are tracts of waterless desert, notably as the south of Morocco is approached, a considerable portion of the Sahara is not a waste of hot sand, but a comparatively fertile land, in which are immense flocks of sheep, much grain, especially barley, and strong walled cities.

The ways of Africa and the East are not the ways of the Western world, and in the matter of the transit of goods there is much to marvel at. Produce from the land between the Upper Niger and Lake Tchad is carried northwards on the heads of slave porters, on the backs of camels and horses, some 1,500 miles to Mogador and Safi, in South Morocco, and nearly 2,000 miles to Algiers and Tunis. On the way the caravans pass wild regions, where there is seldom peace, ruled over by many soldier nations, varying from the ebony Negroes of the "Hinterland," through various shades of brown until the free Arabs of the drier wastes are reached, who, judging from those the writer has seen on the Atlantic shores, are almost as light in color as a Spaniard or Italian, though, strange to say, the northern tribes are darker in skin, the Moors being particularly swarthy. Possibly it may not be out of place here to notice the hold the older civilization of Arabia and the East has over the Negro, as compared with Western influence. For 400 years Europeans have traded along the fever-haunted West African littoral, since the days when the Portuguese first landed on the Gold Coast and Hawkins sailed up the Gambia. Schools and mission stations have been established, and yet in places only fifty miles behind the seaboard every form of degraded superstition, horrible rites of devil-worship, skull hunting, and human sacrifice are prevalent today. District commissioners and traders know this well; it was only a few months ago that four "leopard men" were hanged in Sierra Leone for waylaying and murdering many natives for the sole purpose of "making ju-ju" with the warm hearts, and the writer has seen with his own eyes corpses of murdered slaves drifting down the rivers.

It is a lamentable fact that the Negroes around the white settlements who possess some hazy idea of Christianity are generally cowardly, drunken, idle, and expert thieves, excepting always the Kroomen, who, however, are heathen; and with the exception of postmasters and customs clerks, to whom the writer has paid much in bribes, it may be said that there is no Christian Negro in the service of any British or French colony; and men who know admit that if the troops were withdrawn the whole West African littoral would at once lapse into savage chaos. On the contrary, whenever the Negro has come into touch with the Arab, a race of soldiers results. Many tales continually reach the Gold Coast of inland villages sacked and the inhabitants driven away northward as slaves by the semi-Arab tribes of the Soudan, but there is no murdering of unarmed prisoners, offering of human sacrifices to fetish devils, or supplying the commissariat from the captured enemy, as it is generally believed is done (this is sober earnest) by a tribe between the River Benue and the Cameroons. Any Negro with a trace of Arab blood in him is invariably a Moslem, and the Mahammedan black is generally head and shoulders above either heathen or, it is to be regretted, Christian (or semi-Christian) Negro in the qualities of sobriety, courage, and fidelity. Almost every frontier soldier, armed policeman, and Government servant, from Gambia to Niger, is a Mussulman.—*The Gentleman's Magazine.*

Cedar Lake Colony, Decatur, Ala.—The Negro's capability of self-government is being put to an actual test on the ground where he at one time worked as a slave. This is the result of a colony scheme recently inaugurated by Mrs. Lillie K. Ray, who is well known in financial and literary circles. "Cedar Lake Colony" is situated three and a half miles south of this city. It was formally opened this week by several hundred Negro members; a provisional city government was established, and an application made for a charter. The Negroes are enthusiastic, and are determined, they say, to prove to the world that they are amply qualified to take care of themselves.

The property of the colony comprises 367 acres of fertile land, which grows fine crops of wheat, tobacco, and potatoes. The Louisville and Nashville railroad intersects the tract. The lands are heavily wooded in parts and are well watered.

Mrs. Ray, the originator of the scheme, is an English woman, who came to America about three years ago. She has an elegant home at Moulton Heights, two miles west of Decatur, where she lives in retirement, devoting herself to her literary work. She writes under the *nom de plume* of "Jack Carleton."

In an interview regarding the new colony, Mrs. Ray said: "This colony is not a business speculation in any sense of the term. It is simply a plan for the amelioration of the condition of the Negro race. I have presented as a free gift to the colony land for church and school buildings, which have already been erected by the Negroes who constitute the nucleus of

the colony, by their own hands. They have their own teacher and a regularly ordained preacher of the Baptist faith.

"General Joe Wheeler helped me greatly in obtaining a post-office for the colony, and in my honor it is named 'Ray.' I have received letters from President Smith of the Louisville and Nashville railroad promising his aid and support, and agreeing to give the colony a station, side tracks, and all the necessary shipping facilities. A firm in Providence, R. I., has agreed to take the contract for erecting a twenty-thousand-spindle cotton mill at a cost of $60,000, and another firm will erect a cigar and tobacco factory as soon as we demonstrate that we can profitably produce tobacco.

"The plan is to colonize the most intelligent and progressive Negroes in a city in their own buildings, encourage and aid them to build shops and factories of their own, and instead of fighting for recognition in the factories and shops of the whites, let them grow cotton and tobacco and products of all kinds and manufacture them themselves. I have made a donation of $10,000 to the colony for any practical purpose, conditional upon the erection and inhabiting of 140 houses.

"Governor Johnston, Governor Oates, and Governor Taylor, of Tennessee, are my firm coadjutors. Upon a recent visit to Nashville I had a long and interesting talk with the latter. He assured me that a similar movement would be inaugurated in Tennessee. Thomas J. Lipton, the English millionaire, who gave to the Princess of Wales the sum of $125,000 to provide a dinner for the poor children of London on Jubilee Day, is interested in the plan. He was here last July and gave me assurances that he would lend me material aid. He has enormous tobacco interests in Cuba, which have been crippled by the war, and from observations in the States of Tennessee and Alabama he is convinced that tobacco can be cultivated nearly as profitably here as in Cuba. He will return to America next spring, and will then visit me and help me."—*The New York Times.*

Spirits in Africa.—The rising which has taken place at Brass, in the Niger Protectorate, relatively insignificant as it has proved in itself, calls attention to a question which is by no means insignificant. It is the question of the liquor traffic with native races. It is unnecessary to dwell on the frightful evils attendant upon this trade. They have been demonstrated by the experience of every ruler who has attempted to administer the affairs of the native States with any regard for the well-being of the natives; they have been recognized by enlightened native chiefs in different parts of Africa; they have been fully discussed at international conferences, notably those of Berlin and Brussels, in 1885 and in 1890. Prohibitive resolutions have again and again been arrived at, and in localities where the surrounding circumstances have permitted they have been enforced with the best possible results. There is not a doubt left in the minds of intelligent, experienced, and practical men that the supply of intoxicating liquor to the native races is equivalent to the demoralization

and degradation of the races concerned, and that the first condition of progress in the habits of orderly and industrious existence is to keep the poison of alcohol out of their reach. It is not a temperance fad nor a mere philanthropic counsel of perfection. It is the sober decision of unromantic men of business, from one end of Africa to the other, that an essential preliminary to successful administration is to prevent the sale or supply of spirits to the natives.

This being so, the time seems to have come in which the spirit trade with natives should be placed in the same category as the trade in slaves. Little more than a hundred years ago Adam Smith wrote with apparent unconcern of the important trade in rum which the American colonies carried on with the coast of Africa, "whence they bring back negro slaves in return." The conscience of the civilized world has since been so far aroused that the return cargo of those days is no longer possible. It needs but a step further to bring about a general realization of the fact that to sell a man to the domination of a master who has a commercial interest in taking care of him and who may be even kind is less cruel and is fraught with consequences less terrible than to sell him to the domination of his own drunkenness, which in the case of the Negro is surely merciless. When this further step has been taken the European trader in cheap spirits to the African coast will stand as his predecessor, the European slave-trader now stands, outside the pale of the known varieties of contemporary degradation.

Yet, at present, what do we find? In the English colony of Lagos alone 2,000,000 gallons of spirits go in every year for native consumption, and in the neighboring colony of Oil Rivers, known now as the Niger Protectorate, 2,000,000 gallons more go in also every year. The duties are low enough to make the traffic profitable on the coast and to encourage native trade with the interior. In the territory of the Niger Company, which debouches upon the coast between these two Crown colonies, a determined stand has been made against the trade. The deputy governor of the company, Sir George Goldie, urged strongly upon the Conference of Berlin in October of 1884 the international restrictive policy which was afterwards adopted at the Conference of Brussels. One of the first acts of the company, within three weeks of receiving their charter in 1886, was to impose a heavy duty upon spirits crossing their frontier. In April, 1887, it took the further step of totally prohibiting the introduction of spirits into about one-third of the inland portion of its sphere, and in July, 1890, the prohibition was extended to "any place within the jurisdiction of the company north of the seventh parallel of north latitude." A glance at the map will show that this division includes about nineteen-twentieths of the company's territories, and leaves only the relatively narrow neck of the delta in which the importation of spirits is not absolutely prohibited. The proximity of the two colonies in which liquor is plentiful and cheap renders absolute prohibition on the coast impracticable. Outside pressure is too great, and though the trade is restricted by heavy du-

ties coast natives cannot be deterred from obtaining spirits so long as there are spirits on the coast. The heavy duties give rise, of course, to a considerable smuggling trade, which is, in its turn, a source of no small expense and trouble to the company, and out of the friction which it produces such an attack as that lately directed from Brass upon the company's port town at Akassa may at any moment result. The Brass men are among the most piratical of the lawless tribes upon the coast, and have for years, as a correspondent lately returned from the West Coast of Africa informs us, forcibly prevented the inland tribes from trading with the English. Their punishment and the destruction of their native town will be regarded, he adds, as a blessing by all the peaceful tribes on the Niger, who will now be enabled to take advantage of the opening of the river to legitimate trade. This, so far as it may be accepted as a blow dealt to the smuggling industry, is incidentally satisfactory. In the meantime the experience has cost the company about £20,000 worth of stores looted and property destroyed in an open town, to say nothing of the expenses of the punitive expedition to be borne by Her Majesty's government, and the incident accentuates the need for more united action in the matter of the regulation of the spirit trade.

It is not to be supposed that the governments of the British colonies are indifferent to the evils of which the Niger Company has on this coast made itself the determined opponent. They must have recognized, like the administrators of the company, that the existence of the spirit trade destroys other trade. The native who buys spirits rarely buys anything else. Trade in spirits and trade in general goods are naturally opposed, and although the growth of a trade in spirits is usually rapid, giving large returns within short periods of time, it cannot, in the nature of things, attain to such proportions as the trade in goods. On an absolutely unsentimental basis, it is therefore more profitable in the long run alike for every administration on the coast, whether official or commercial, to check the trade in spirits, of which the effect is to kill the development of substantial trade by substituting the supply of one demand for the infinitely greater possibilities arising out of the varied demands of a gradually civilizing market. The cotton trade, the hardware trade, the china trade, every trade except the spirits trade, is interested in maintaining the combat which the colonial governments must be assumed to be desirous of carrying on. There is, consequently, a fair prospect of practical support in any measures which it may be resolved to take, and with the exception of the fact that the very extensive liquor trade of Hamburg gives Germany a troublesome factor to deal with, it is, fortunately, no less true of foreign than of English settlements. The rule is one of universal application along the coast.

The difficulty which has hitherto attended the settlement of the question is the lack of concerted action. The Niger Company, which may be regarded as the center of resistance to the spirit trade upon the coast, has been unable to enforce total prohibition in its coast territories because

the admission of liquor into the colonies on either side would render such a measure necessarily inoperative. The British colonial governments are similarly affected by the proximity of French and German colonies. All are suffering from the same evil. All really require the same remedy, and the remedy is total prohibition of the import of low-priced trade spirits upon the coast from Cape Colony to Morocco. The difficulty in guarding such a line is rendered possible by the nature of the coast and of the trade. Spirits can only be shipped in large vessels and these, owing to the force with which the surf breaks along the West African coast, can only touch for unloading at points that are well known. A temporary diminution of trade would of course, have to be faced, but the prospects of permanent benefit ought to be sufficient to counterbalance this.

If total prohibition is regarded by foreign governments as too strong a measure, there is the alternative of high restrictive duties, and it is interesting to note that last year in the territories of the Niger Company the operation of the restrictive tariff was highly effectual. The essence of success lies in uniformity of action. If prohibitiou is accepted, it should prevail all along the coast. If the balance of opinion is in favor of the more moderate measure of a high restrictive tariff, the rate should be the same at every part.

If the inquiry into the causes of the rising in the Niger protectorate, half promised in Sir Edward Grey's answer to questions asked in the House of Commons on the subject, should result in the initiation of some system of effective international cooperation to repress the spirit trade, the outbreak at Brass will have rendered a very valuable service to civilized administration in West Africa.—*London Times.*

The Tendency of the Negro to "Go Fantee."—The London *Spectator* in the article under the caption, "The Peril of Africa," which we reproduced in our last issue, makes the following suggestive remarks in regard to the tendency of the Negro in respect to European civilization:

"We hold that the relation between this country and the Negro races of the world may be made a source of great, cheap, and direct power. Those races will probably take civilization very slowly; it may, indeed, be centuries before they rise to the level of Bengalese or Chinese, while to the level of European they, as races, will probably never attain. Their whole history for the past three thousand years shows that there is in them some deficiency of accumulating power that when they have advanced they do not, if left to themselves, stay advanced, but have a tendency to "go fantee"—that is, to be charmed with the perfect freedom from restraint of savage and naked life. It will be most difficult to make of our new millions of Negro subjects what we want to make of them, peasants like the agriculturists of India, willing to live quietly for centuries under white guidance, to pay heavy taxes, and to profit by a gradually increasing amount of intellectual training."

The Negro has his own ideas of European civilization, and though under the stress of the environment of this civilization he adapts himself to it, those ideas which are inherent in him are not extinguished. It is not therefore "a deficiency of accumulating power" on his part, but rather the disposition not to accumulate which causes him when in his own country and under conditions normal to him to discard a so-called civilized existence in favor of a primitive and natural condition of life. The Negro is naturally of a philosophical turn of mind, and he realizes that the civilization, so-called, which is the acme of the white man's ambition, is after all but an artificial state of existence inimical to bodily health, and though enveloped in an outward cover of gloss and polish, is really devoid of that physical healthfulness, morality, and virtue which brings happiness to man. The Negro believes in a practical way that "Nature is God, and God is Nature," and that that man attains the fullest measure of happiness who adheres most closely to what is natural. When he has been left undisturbed from foreign influences, the Negro has dwelt in his country enjoying a degree of ease and happiness in his domestic and social relations of which the foreigner can have no conception. Inhabiting an exceedingly fertile country, which yields all the year round, and where a little exertion supplies all his wants, and where, too, every adult male and female are required to put forth the exertion necessary to their physical development and sustenance, the Negro is a stranger to the pampering luxury on the one hand and the distressing poverty on the other hand which prevails in so-called civilized lands. His government is of the patriarchal form, with community of interests as the central idea. He knows nothing of police and jails, while crime is almost wholly unknown.

At points on the roads leading through his farms may be seen piles of food-stuffs offered for sale to the passer-by, unguarded or unattended by any one, the price of each article being indicated by a number of small stones or seed, and the passer-by has only to take what he wants and place the money by the side of the food of which he has purchased and go on his way. There is no danger of the money or food-stuffs being stolen, and toward evening the owner comes and checks over his sales and gathers up his money and remaining stock and goes to his home. The idea of community of interests is not merely an abstract one, but is given practical direction. Whenever a new house is to be built or an old one repaired, the male members of the neighborhood are summoned, and food having been provided by the house-owner, the work is quickly disposed of; and so, as regards the moral side of the picture, prostitution and the diseases incident to it are wholly unknown. Every woman has a husband; daughters are affianced soon after they are born, and grow up under a condition of restraint and moral rectitude which establishes such a virtuous character in the youth generally as to render an act of impropriety a very rare occurrence indeed. Regular, chaste, and temperate in his habits of life, the Negro experiences none of the ills resulting from dissipation, which is the chief feature of civilized life. His political

intuitions and patriotism are such that it would be impossible for him to realize that any but a madman would attempt wantonly to commit arson, or blow up or destroy any house or building of the town in which he lived, while such a thing as socialism or communism does not enter into the political agenda of Negro life. Living under such happy conditions, it is no wonder if the Negro manifests a disinclination to change those conditions for what is supposed to be a higher state of existence, but what he knows will only tend to make him miserable. Whenever, therefore, he finds himself, through the congestion of population or other effects of environment, drifting toward the state of life repugnant to him, he resorts to the desperate but effective experiment of breaking up his home, and becomes dispersed, and thus effects a return to the natural condition of life which he prefers. The tendency of the Negro, therefore, to 'go fantee" is really a disposition on his part to secure for himself that ease and happiness which he believes to be the *summum bonum* of life. Miss Kingsley has said that "if happiness and joy were the chief aims of life, then the Negro would have to send missionaries to Europe to christianize the European." The fact that the white man does not realize that happiness and love constitute the main objects of human existence shows how much his artificial life and methods have distorted his ideas and conceptions. The Negro, however, prefers to remain true to Nature and to God, and when the world becomes more truly christianized and civilized it will be found that after all the Negro has gained most, and all because of the tendency on his part to "go fantee."—*The Lagos Weekly Record.*

The Claims of Africa upon the American Negro.—The first duty of the scientist or the thinker who would reach a conclusion or establish a theory is to make observations and collect facts.

The astronomer goes out under the vast expanse of heaven and, having taken his bearings, plants his instrument upon the earth and looks toward the sun, recording his observations while Venus passes by, and comes down with the conclusion that, if the observations concerning the transit of Venus are correct, and if the photosphere of the sun does not bulge out too far, the distance of the sun from the earth approximates ninety-five millions of miles; and no one who examines the facts upon which the conclusion is based doubts the assertion.

The geologist looks over our northern region and observes icebergs and glaciers moving over land and sea on a small scale, carrying masses of rocks upon their bosoms to distant regions, and grinding and grooving the rocks beneath. Looking at these observations today and observing that there are large boulders lying in the fields of Ohio and neighboring States that have no likeness to anything in the surrounding country, and that the rocky hills in those regions have grooves cut in them running north and south, he concludes that there was a great glacial slide over the whole of North America; and any one examining the facts cannot resist the conclusion.

How does the scientist know that the vast coal-beds in Pennsylvania today are the result of deposits of past ages? Because he sees the fallen leaves and trees in the forest undergoing at present the same transformation on a smaller scale.

What confirms our belief that the great Mississippi delta, including the site of the beautiful city of New Orleans, is borrowed land, having been brought down, grain by grain, by the river from the northwest? Because we see the same principles at work all around us, though upon a smaller scale. After a spring shower, the beautiful white sand that was in the yard has been carried below the lot, and the gravel on our walk has been deposited in a neighbor's field. The principle which moves the sand from the yard is the same as that which forms islands and changes the face of continents.

Let us be scientific today and go into the field of God's historic facts and make some observations—though they be few and problematic.

Observation 1. In the field of history we see that in the unfolding of his plans for human development God gives to certain nations definite fields for their activity, prescribing metes and bounds for their habitation.

Observation 2. History also teaches that particular races are selected to do particular work, and to contribute to the sum of human progress the products of their own peculiar genius. The Jews were historically a peculiar people, with a peculiar work to do and a peculiar land as the sphere of their activity. With the Mediterranean on the west, separating them from an effete civilization; the Lebanon Mountains on the north, cutting them off from the seafaring Phœnicians; the desert of Arabia excluding them from the idolatrous nations of the East, who worshiped gods many and lords many—this race was left alone to prepare, to unfold, to perfect the idea of one true God and one true religion.

The Greeks were given a land and a work to do. Theirs was to construct a beautiful civilization, with a perfect language as a means of communication, and to demonstrate for all time what the human intellect can and cannot do apart from the knowledge of the true God. How well they played their part will be told and retold as long as man has a taste for that which is humanly perfect.

The Romans were placed upon the seven hills and given sway over the world, that they might impress upon mankind the one idea of obedience to law.

Following this analogy, we pause here to ask if the Negro has not a part to play, and, if so, what land must be his stage? For he is yet without a home, without a name and a nation.

I grant you that the world is tending to that kind of civilization in which man as an individual shall be a cosmopolite—a citizen of the world. Nevertheless, the race which he represents must make its own history and its own racial contribution to the world's progress.

Observation 3. In certain epochs of historic development, when new ideas are to be advanced and the current of thought must flow into new channels, progress is made more rapidly in certain races whose natures

are more adapted to those ideas. Now, according to De Tocqueville, the questions of the past generation were questions of civil and religious liberty; but the questions before the world today are sociology, morality, and practical religion.

But we find the Negro's nature peculiarly responsive to social and religious questions. To say that the Negro is emotional and superstitious is but to say that he has a nature peculiarly responsive to religious truth.

Observation 4. That with races as with individuals, when an opportunity is neglected it is taken away.

One more significant fact. After years of experiment, Bishop Taylor has found that in many sections of Africa it is absolutely necessary to buy the young children, especially the girls, and own them as the missionary's property in order to educate and christianize them. Now this is Christian slavery, and the success of the method shows that, owing to the peculiar condition of heathen society, the best method of civilizing them is by a mild form of slavery, on a small scale. Now turn to this country, and, leaving out the brutal and inhuman element of American slavery, we see on what a magnificent scale God has turned out four millions at once from the school of American bondage, with all the elements of a Christian civilization.

I admit, of course, that these are scattered and miscellaneous facts; but so are all facts until they are harmonized by the constructive faculty of the human mind. But if they be true, or if any considerable proportion of them be true, then we cannot resist the conclusion that beyond the seas there is a land whose inhabitants, whose past history, whose future prospects, whose crying needs, are calling for you and for me; and to listen to that call, and to consider the moral bearings of its claims, is the imperative duty of every American Negro. We emphasize the American Negro because the Negroes of no other country have had the training so peculiarly fitting them for the development of Africa.

Responsibilities are placed upon races, and duties made known, upon the same principle as they come to individuals; and the race, as the individual, may shirk a responsibility, shut their eyes to the pointings of the finger of Providence, and close their ears to a call to duty; but the duty remains the same, and its neglect does violence to the moral nature of those refusing.

The Negro race in America cannot intelligently read its own history without seeing clearly that the first great task before it is the redemption of Africa.

The two hundred and fifty years of its history here is a very short period, indeed, in the life of a race; but we live in deeds, in thoughts, and in experience, not in years; and so striking have been the providential dealings with the race, so rapid in succession have been the scenes in the great drama, that the Divine plot in the play may be seen by those who observe but little, and God's hand upon the historic canvas, pointing toward Africa, is easily recognized.

The centuries are moving more rapidly. The historic stream, like the current of a mighty river, sweeps along with more volume and greater momentum as it nears the end of its course. Old institutions fall; new ones rise. Old methods are forgotten; new ones take their place. In short, whole historic eras bud and blossom within a single generation. Years ago it took one missionary ten years, with ten thousand dollars, to get one convert in some of the foreign lands. Now, in the same countries, the same amount of expenditure will transplant ten thousand souls from heathen darkness into the sunshine of Christian light.

God is saying, to all individuals, races, and nations that are to figure as agents in the great scheme of the redemption and enlightenment of humanity, "What thou doest, do quickly."

Some years back an opportunity was given the Indian for Christian civilization. He turned his back on the open door and took to the chase and the wildwood. God could wait till he came back. The wheels of progress moved on, and today the Indian is so far behind the drum-beat of American civilization that he cannot keep time with the music.

What means it that while the English, French, and Spaniards were plowing the seas in quest of gold with their eyes riveted upon America, Africa, by far the richest land in the world, remained hidden in the hand of God? Why the great opening up of Africa just at this time, when the Negro, with preparation, is asking, "What can I do for my race?"

What means it that in slavery we were so sorely pressed till we found God, and in freedom we have been so signally blessed?

As we were almost the only oppressed, so we have been almost the sole beneficiaries of Church and State. The fostering arms of charity have been thrown around us, and we have enjoyed the very essence of the most splendid age of Christian philanthropy the world has ever seen.

The heart of christendom is now pulsating with missionary enthusiasm. The eyes of the world are looking for those who are lost. The man seeking for souls has gone farther than the man seeking for dollars. India, China, Korea, and Formosa, Liberia, and the South Sea islands—all once far away, are now the objects of fervent prayer and Christian solicitude.

Our strange history in this country will have no meaning, no philosophic issue, unless we betake ourselves at this period to some great movement for our fellow-man which involves sacrifice and self-denial. Unless we turn our attention to Africa, the historian of the future coming to this page of our racial advancement must pause, with pen in hand, and make the sad comment that the promising historic stream ended like that strange river in the East, which issuing from gushing fountains amid buds and blossoms, soon dries up in the desert, never reaching the ocean.

We will exhibit a seed time without harvest, a blossom without fruit, a promise without fulfillment. Truly, if we do not act now we shall be guilty of trying to thwart the purpose of God in history and of tampering with the wheels of human progress; for how a duty could be made plainer or a call more distinct it is not easy to see, unless Almighty God

himself should dispatch a special messenger to bind us and lead us away to duty.

All the centuries of human progress and historic development have conspired to give us an opportunity, and the clock which measures the time of our activity points to high noon, while God and the moral universe wait with bated breath to see what we will do.

But I do not despair. The American Negro now hears the voice of his native land. His heart is beating warm and his ear is growing tender to her cries. He is now turning his footsteps thither, and soon the march will be unbroken.

O, Africa, thou land of our fathers, thou—

> "Far-away region of old,
> Where wander rivers over sands of gold;
> Where the leaves of the feathery palms rise high,
> And dates grow ripe in the sunny sky,"

awake! arise! shine! for thy light is coming, thy time is here, thy day is dawning, and soon the bright beams of the sun of civilization shall shine upon thy bosom, and awake at once the resources of thy virgin soil and the slumbering genius of thy people! The car of progress shall be heard rolling through thy land; the hum of the spindle shall tell of the mighty rivers that run between thy native hills; great cities shall rest on thy shores near the ocean, and towns shall nestle near the bosom of thy lakes. The voice of the black statesman shall be heard thundering in the halls of thy National Congress, and thy ships of commerce, bearing the ensign of the Black Republic, shall ride the billows of every ocean and cleave the still waters of every gulf and bay and channel on the globe, carrying back the spices of the East and the riches and learning of the West to a nation whose God is the Lord and whose Saviour is Christ of Nazareth.

Yes, Africa, we are coming. Waft it, ye winds that blow toward Afric's sunny land. Tell them we are coming. Whisper it, ye waves that beat against her golden strand. Tell them we are coming.

W. W. Lucas.

Note.—Mr. Lucas is a Negro, who was graduated from Clark University, Atlanta, Ga., in May, 1897.

A Call from Liberia, Africa.—In a private letter to Bishop Mallalieu, the Rev. A. P. Camphor, principal of Monrovia Seminary, Liberia, states the condition and what he considers the great need of our work in that Republic. Through the courtesy of the bishop we give the following excerpt from his letter:

Monrovia Seminary, Monrovia, Liberia, *Dec. 21, 1897.*

Dear Bishop Mallalieu: Our work in Liberia has not only received fresh inspiration under the charming leadership of Bishop Hartzell, but is developing as never before. We need now new blood to mix with this old, sluggish, inferior fluid that has all but poisoned our spiritual organ-

ism. It seems to me that the hope of our work here is in introducing and injecting fresh, pure blood from America. These people being so far from civilizing centers and visited so seldom by intelligent, inspiring leaders of our church, and having so much of the demoralizing around them, have all but sunken into the depths of apathy and indifference. We need help in the shape of young men and women who will inspire and encourage the people; who will set a higher standard and win them by their own noble life.

I am praying God to place this burden—the burden of redeeming Africa—upon the shoulders and in the hearts of our own brethren. They must come to our rescue. I feel that this is the greatest work in the world. The Lord bless you! I hope that many of our brethren, through your labors and words, may be brought into this path of duty.

Yours truly, A. P. Camphor.

—*Southwestern Christian Advocate.*

The South African Rand Gold Mines.—The duration of the mines as a whole is a difficult problem, for it involves the question whether many pieces of reef, which are now little worked or not worked at all, will in future be found worth working, owing to cheapened appliances and to a larger yield of gold per ton of rock, in which case the number of mines may be largely increased, and reefs now neglected be opened up when the present ones have been exhausted. The view of the most competent specialists seems to be that, though many of what are now the best properties will probably be worked out in twenty or thirty years, the district as a whole will not be exhausted for at least fifty and possibly even for seventy or eighty years to come; and the value of the gold to be extracted within those fifty years has been roughly estimated at not less than £700,000,000 (over $3,500,000,000), of which £200,000,000 will be clear profit, the balance going to pay the cost of extraction. In 1896 the value of the Witwatersrand gold output was £7,400,000 ($37,000,000). Assuming a production of nearly twice that amount, viz., £14,000,000 ($70,000,000) a year, this would exhaust the field in fifty years; but it is, of course, quite impossible to predict what the future rate of production will be, for that must depend not only on the progress of mechanical and chemical science, but (as we shall presently see) to some extent also upon administrative and even political conditions. In the five years preceding 1896 the production had increased so fast (at the rate of about a million sterling per annum) that, even under the conditions which existed in 1895, every one expected a further increase, and the product of 1897 will probably be not far short of £10,000,000. With more favorable economic and administrative conditions it might within four years reach £14,000,000, and the South African Republic would then stand first among the gold-producing countries. She is now second to the United States only. The total annual output of gold for the whole world was in 1896 about £43,600,000 ($218,000,000).—*James Bryce in "Impressions of South Africa."*

THE CONSTITUTION OF LIBERIA.

ARTICLE I.—*Declaration of Rights.*

The end of the institution, maintenance, and administration of government, is to secure the existence of the body politic, to protect it, and to furnish the individuals who compose it with the power of enjoying in safety and tranquillity their natural rights, and the blessings of life; and, whenever these great objects are not obtained, the people have a right to alter the government, and to take measures necessary for their safety, prosperity, and happiness.

Therefore we, the people of the Commonwealth of Liberia, in Africa, acknowledging with devout gratitude the goodness of God in granting to us the blessings of the Christian religion, and political, religious, and civil liberty, do, in order to secure these blessings for ourselves and our posterity, and to establish justice, insure domestic peace, and promote the general welfare, hereby solemnly associate and constitute ourselves a free, sovereign, and independent State, by the name of the Republic of Liberia; and do ordain and establish this constitution for the government of the same.

SECTION 1. All men are born equally free and independent, and have certain natural inherent and inalienable rights,—among which are the rights of enjoying and defending life and liberty, of acquiring, possessing, and protecting property, and of pursuing and obtaining safety and happiness.

SECT. 2. All power is inherent in the people: all free governments are instituted by their authority and for their benefit, and they have a right to alter and reform the same when their safety and happiness require it.

SECT. 3. All men have a natural and inalienable right to worship God according to the dictates of their own consciences, without obstruction or molestation from others. All persons demeaning themselves peaceably, and not obstructing others in their religious worship, are entitled to the protection of law in the free exercise of their own religion; and no sect of Christians shall have exclusive privileges or preference over any other sect, but all shall be alike tolerated; and no religious test whatever shall be required as a qualification for civil office, or the exercise of any civil right.

SECT. 4. There shall be no slavery within this Republic; nor shall any citizen of this Republic, or any person resident therein, deal in slaves, either within or without this Republic, directly or indirectly.

SECT. 5. The people have a right at all times, in an orderly and peaceable manner, to assemble and consult upon the common good, to instruct their representatives, and to petition the government or any public functionaries for the redress of grievances.

SECT. 6. Every person injured shall have remedy therefor by due course of law. Justice shall be done without denial or delay; and in all cases not arising under martial law or upon impeachment, the parties

shall have a right to a trial by jury, and to be heard in person or by counsel, or both.

SECT. 7. No person shall be held to answer for a capital or infamous crime, except in cases of impeachment, cases arising in the army and navy, and petty offenses, unless upon presentment by a grand jury; and every person criminally charged shall have a right to be seasonably furnished with a copy of the charge, to be confronted with the witnesses against him, to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have a speedy, public, and impartial trial by a jury of the vicinity. He shall not be compelled to furnish or give evidence against himself; and no person shall, for the same offense, be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb.

SECT. 8. No person shall be deprived of life, liberty, property, or privilege, but by the judgment of his peers, or the law of the land.

SECT. 9. No place shall be searched nor person seized on a criminal charge or suspicion, unless upon warrant lawfully issued, upon probable cause supported by oath or solemn affirmation, specially designating the place or person, and the object of the search.

SECT. 10. Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor excessive punishments inflicted; nor shall the legislature make any law impairing the obligation of contracts, nor any law rendering any act punishable in any manner in which it was not punishable when it was committed.

SECT. 11. All elections shall be by ballot; and every male citizen of twenty-one years of age, possessing real estate, shall have the right of suffrage.

SECT. 12. The people have a right to keep and to bear arms for the common defense. And as, in time of peace, armies are dangerous to liberty, they ought not to be maintained without the consent of the legislature; and the military power shall always be held in exact subordination to the civil authority, and be governed by it.

SECT. 13. Private property shall not be taken for public use without just compensation.

SECT. 14. The powers of this government shall be divided into three distinct departments, the legislative, executive, and judicial; and no person belonging to one of these departments shall exercise any of the powers belonging to either of the others. This section is not to be construed to include Justices of the Peace.

SECT. 15. The liberty of the press is essential to the security of freedom in a State: it ought not, therefore, to be restrained in this Republic.

The press shall be free to every person who undertakes to examine the proceedings of the legislature or any branch of government; and no law shall ever be made to restrain the rights thereof. The free communication of thoughts and opinions is one of the invaluable rights of man; and every citizen may freely speak, write, and print on any subject, being responsible for the abuse of that liberty.

In prosecutions for the publication of papers investigating the official

conduct of officers, or men in a public capacity, or where the matter published is proper for public information, the truth thereof may be given in evidence. And in all indictments for libels, the jury shall have a right to determine the law and the facts under the direction of the court, as in other cases.

SECT. 16. No subsidy, charge, impost, or duties ought to be established, fixed, laid, or levied, under any pretext whatsoever, without the consent of the people, or their representatives in the legislature.

SECT. 17. Suits may be brought against the Republic in such manner and in such cases as the legislature may by law direct.

SECT. 18. No person can, in any case, be subjected to the law martial, or to any penalties or pains by virtue of that law (except those employed in the army or navy, and except the militia in actual service), but by the authority of the legislature.

SECT. 19. In order to prevent those who are vested with authority from becoming oppressors, the people have a right, at such periods and in such manner as they shall establish by their frame of government, to cause their public officers to return to private life, and fill up vacant places by certain and regular elections and appointments.

SECT. 20. That all prisoners shall be bailable by sufficient sureties, unless for capital offenses when the proof is evident or presumption great; and the privilege and the benefit of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall be enjoyed in this Republic, in the most free, easy, cheap, expeditious, and ample manner, and shall not be suspended by the legislature, except upon the most urgent and pressing occasions, and for a limited time, not exceeding twelve months.

ARTICLE II.—*Legislative Powers.*

SECTION 1. The legislative power shall be vested in a Legislature of Liberia, and consist of two separate branches,—a House of Representatives and a Senate,—to be styled the Legislature of Liberia, each of which shall have a negative on the other; and the enacting style of their acts and laws shall be, "It is enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the Republic of Liberia in Legislature assembled."

SECT. 2. The representatives shall be elected by and for the inhabitants of the several counties of Liberia, and shall be apportioned among the several counties of Liberia as follows: The County of Montserrado shall have four representatives, the County of Grand Bassa shall have three, and the County of Sinoe shall have one; and all counties hereafter which shall be admitted in the Republic shall have one representative, and for every ten thousand inhabitants one representative shall be added. No person shall be a representative who has not resided in the county two whole years immediately previous to his election, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of the county, and does not own real estate of not less value than one hundred and fifty dollars in the county in which he resides, and who shall not have attained the age of twenty-three years. The representatives shall be elected biennially, and shall serve two years from the time of their election.

SECT. 3. When a vacancy occurs in the representation of any county by death, resignation, or otherwise, it shall be filled by a new election.

SECT. 4. The House of Representatives shall elect their own speaker and other officers. They shall also have the sole power of impeachment.

SECT. 5. The Senate shall consist of two members from Montserrado County, two from Bassa County, two from Sinoe County, and two from each county which may be hereafter incorporated into this Republic. No person shall be a senator who shall not have resided three whole years immediately previous to his election in the Republic of Liberia, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of the county which he represents, and who does not own real estate of not less value than two hundred dollars in the county which he represents, and who shall not have attained the age of twenty-five years. The senator for each county who shall have the highest number of votes shall retain his seat for four years; and the one who shall have the next highest number of votes, two years; and all who are afterwards elected to fill their seats shall remain in office four years.

SECT. 6. The Senate shall try all impeachments, the senators being first sworn or solemnly affirmed to try the same impartially, and according to law; and no person shall be convicted but by the concurrence of two-thirds of the senators present. Judgment in such cases shall not extend beyond removal from office, and disqualification to hold an office in the Republic; but the party may still be tried at law for the same offense.

When either the President or Vice-President is to be tried, the Chief Justice shall preside.

SECT. 7. It shall be the duty of the Legislature, as soon as conveniently may be after the adoption of this constitution, and once at least in every ten years afterwards, to cause a true census to be taken of each town and county of the Republic of Liberia; and a representative shall be allowed every town having a population of ten thousand inhabitants; and, for every additional ten thousand in the counties after the first census, one representative shall be added to that county, until the number of representatives shall amount to thirty. Afterwards, one representative shall be added for every thirty thousand.

SECT. 8. Each branch of the legislature shall be judge of the election returns and qualifications of its own members. A majority of each shall be necessary to transact business; but a less number may adjourn from day to day, and compel the attendance of absent members. Each house may adopt its own rules of proceeding, enforce order, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, may expel a member.

SECT. 9. Neither house shall adjourn for more than two days without the consent of the other; and both houses shall sit in the same town.

SECT. 10. Every bill or resolution which shall have passed both branches of the Legislature, shall, before it becomes a law, be laid before the President for his approval. If he approves, he shall sign it; if not, he shall return it to the Legislature with his objections: if the Legislature shall afterwards pass the bill or resolution by a vote of two-thirds in each

branch, it shall become a law. If the President shall neglect to return such bill or resolution to the Legislature, with his objection, for five days after the same shall have been so laid before him,—the Legislature remaining in session during that time, such neglect shall be equivalent to his signature.

SECT. 11. The Senators and Representatives shall receive from the Republic a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law; and shall be privileged from arrest, except for treason, felony, or breach of the peace, while attending at, going to, or returning from, the session of the Legislature.

ARTICLE III.—*Executive Power.*

SECTION 1. The Supreme Executive power shall be vested in a President, who shall be elected by the people, and shall hold his office for the term of two years. He shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy. He shall, in the recess of the legislature, have power to call out the militia, or any portion thereof, into actual service in defense of the Republic. He shall have power to make treaties, provided the Senate concur therein by a vote of two-thirds of the senators present. He shall nominate, and, with the advice and consent of the Senate, appoint and commission, all ambassadors and other public ministers and consuls, secretaries of state, of war, of the navy, and of the treasury, attorney general, all judges of courts, sheriffs, coroners, marshals, justices of the peace, clerks of courts, registers, notaries public, and all other officers of State, civil and military, whose appointment may not be otherwise provided for by the constitution, or by standing laws. And, in the recess of the Senate, he may fill any vacancy in those offices, until the next session of the Senate. He shall receive all ambassadors and other public ministers. He shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed; he shall inform the Legislature, from time to time, of the condition of the Republic, and recommend any public measures for their adoption which he may think expedient. He may, after conviction, remit any public forfeitures and penalties, and grant reprieves and pardons for public offenses, except in cases of impeachment. He may require information and advice from any public officer, touching matters pertaining to his office. He may, on extraordinary occasions, convene the Legislature, and may adjourn the two houses whenever they cannot agree as to the time of adjournment.

SECT. 2. There shall be a Vice-President, who shall be elected in the same manner and for the same term as that of the President, and whose qualifications shall be the same. He shall be President of the Senate, and give the casting vote when the house is equally divided on any subject. And in case of the removal of the President from office, or his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President; and the Legislature may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President; and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

SECT. 3. The Secretary of State shall keep the records of the State, and all the records and papers of the legislative body, and all other public records and documents not belonging to any other department, and shall lay the same, when required, before the President or Legislature. He shall attend upon them when required, and perform such other duties as may be enjoined by law.

SECT. 4. The Secretary of the Treasury, or other persons who may by law be charged with the custody of the public moneys, shall, before he receive such moneys, give bonds to the State, with sufficient sureties to the acceptance of the Legislature, for the faithful discharge of his trust. He shall exhibit a true account of such moneys when required by the President or Legislature; and no moneys shall be drawn from the treasury but by warrant from the President, in consequence of appropriation made by law.

SECT. 5. All ambassadors and other public ministers and consuls, the Secretary of State, of War, of the Treasury, and of the Navy, the Attorney General, and Postmaster General, shall hold their offices during the pleasure of the President. All justices of the peace, sheriffs, marshals, clerks of courts, registers, and notaries public, shall hold their office for the term of two years from the date of their respective commissions, but may be removed from office within that time by the President, at his pleasure; and all other officers whose term of office may not be otherwise limited by law, shall hold their office during the pleasure of the President.

SECT. 6. Every civil officer may be removed from office, by impeachment, for official misconduct. Every such officer may also be removed by the President, upon the address of both branches of the Legislature, stating the particular reasons for his removal.

SECT. 7. No person shall be eligible to the office of President who has not been a citizen of this Republic for at least five years, and shall not have attained the age of thirty-five years; and who shall not be possessed of unincumbered real estate, of not less value than six hundred dollars.

SECT. 8. The President shall at stated times receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected. And, before he enters on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:—

I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of the President of the Republic of Liberia, and will to the best of my ability preserve, protect, and defend the constitution, and enforce the laws, of the Republic of Liberia.

ARTICLE IV.—*Judicial Department.*

SECTION 1. The judicial power of this Republic shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and such subordinate courts as the Legislature may from time to time establish. The judges of the Supreme Court, and all other judges of courts, shall hold their office during good behavior, but may be removed by the President on the address of two-thirds of both houses for that purpose, or by impeachment and conviction thereon. The judges shall have salaries established by law, which may be increased, but not diminished, during their continuance in office. They shall not receive any other perquisite or emoluments whatever, from parties or others on account of any duty required of them.

SECT. 2. The Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction in all cases affecting ambassadors or other public ministers and consuls, and those to which the Republic shall be a party. In all other cases, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations, as the Legislature shall from time to time make.

ARTICLE V.—*Miscellaneous Provisions.*

SECTION 1. All laws now in force in the Commonwealth of Liberia, and not repugnant to this constitution, shall be in force as the laws of the Republic of Liberia, until they shall be repealed by the Legislature.

SECT. 2. All judges, magistrates, and other officers now concerned in the administration of justice in the Commonwealth of Liberia, and all other existing civil and military officers therein, shall continue to hold and discharge their respective offices in the name and by the authority of the Republic, until others shall be appointed and commissioned in their stead pursuant to this constitution.

SECT. 3. All towns and municipal corporations within this Republic, constituted under the laws of the Commonwealth of Liberia, shall retain their existing organizations and privileges; and the respective officers thereof shall remain in office, and act under the authority of this Republic, in the same manner and with the like powers as they now possess under the laws of said Commonwealth.

SECT. 4. The first election of President, Vice-President, Senators, and Representatives, shall be held on the first Tuesday in October in the year of our Lord eighteen hundred and forty-seven, in the same manner as elections of members of the council are chosen in the Commonwealth of Liberia; and the votes shall be certified and returned to the Colonial Secretary; and the result of the election shall be ascertained, posted, and notified by him as it is now by law provided in case of such members of council.

SECT. 5. All other elections of President, Vice-President, Senators and Representatives, shall be held in the respective towns on the first Tuesday in May, in every two years, to be held and regulated in such manner as the Legislature may by law prescribe. The returns of votes shall be made to the Secretary of State, who shall open the same, and forthwith issue notice of the election to the persons apparently so elected Senators and Representatives; and all such returns shall be by him laid before the Legislature at its next ensuing session, together with a list of the names of the persons who appear by such returns to have been duly elected Senators and Representatives; and the persons appearing by said returns to be duly elected shall proceed to organize themselves accordingly as the Senate and House of Representatives. The votes for President shall be sorted, counted, and declared by the House of Representatives; and, if no person shall appear to have a majority of such votes, the Senators and Representatives present shall in convention, by joint ballot, elect from among the persons having the three highest numbers of votes a person to act as President for the ensuing term.

SECT. 6. The Legislature shall assemble once at least in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in January, unless a different day shall be appointed by law.

SECT. 7. Every legislator and other officer appointed under this constitution, shall, before he enters upon the duties of his office, take and subscribe a solemn oath or affirmation to support the constitution of this Republic, and faithfully and impartially discharge the duties of such office. The presiding officer of the Senate shall administer such oath or affirmation to the President, in convention of both houses; and the President shall administer the same to the Vice-President, to the Sen-

ators and to the Representatives in like manner. If the President is unable to attend, the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court may administer the oath or affirmation to him at any place, and also to the Vice-President, Senators, and Representatives in convention. Other officers may take such oath or affirmation before the President, Chief Justice, or any other person who may be designated by law.

SECT. 8. All elections of public officers shall be made by a majority of the votes, except in cases otherwise regulated by the constitution or by law.

SECT. 9. Offices created by this constitution which the circumstances of the Republic do not require that they shall be filled, shall not be filled until the Legislature shall deem it necessary.

SECT. 10. The property of which a woman may be possessed at the time of her marriage, and also that of which she may afterwards become possessed, otherwise than by her husband, shall not be held responsible for his debts, whether contracted before or after marriage.

Nor shall the property thus intended to be secured to the woman be alienated otherwise than by her free and voluntary consent; and such alienation may be made by her either by sale, devise, or otherwise.

SECT. 11. In all cases in which estates are insolvent, the widow shall be entitled to one-third of the real estate during her natural life, and to one-third of the personal estate, which she shall hold in her own right, subject to alienation by her by devise or otherwise.

SECT. 12. No person shall be entitled to hold real estate in this Republic unless he be a citizen of the same. Nevertheless, this article shall not be construed to apply to colonization, missionary, educational, or other benevolent institutions, so long as the property or estate is applied to its legitimate purposes.

SECT. 13. The great object of forming these colonies being to provide a home for the dispersed and oppressed children of Africa, and to regenerate and enlighten this benighted continent, none but persons of color shall be admitted to citizenship in this Republic.

SECT. 14. The purchase of any land by any citizen or citizens from the aborigines of this country, for his or their own use, or for the benefit of others, as estate or estates in fee-simple, shall be considered null and void to all intents and purposes.

SECT. 15. The improvement of the native tribes and their advancement in the arts of agriculture and husbandry being a cherished object of this government, it shall be the duty of the President to appoint in each county some discreet person, whose duty it shall be to make regular and periodical tours through the country, for the purpose of calling the attention of the natives to these wholesome branches of industry, and of instructing them in the same; and the legislature shall, as soon as can conveniently be done, make provision for these purposes by the appropriation of money.

SECT. 16. The existing regulations of the American Colonization Society, in the Commonwealth, relative to emigrants, shall remain the same in the Republic, until regulated by compact between the Society and the Republic: nevertheless, the Legislature shall make no law prohibiting emigration; and it shall be among the first duties of the Legislature to take measures to arrange the future relations between the American Colonization Society and this Republic.

SECT. 17. This constitution may be altered whenever two-thirds of both branches of the Legislature shall deem it necessary; in which case the alterations or amendments shall first be considered and approved by the Legislature, by the concurrence of two-thirds of the members of each branch, and afterwards by them submitted to the people, and adopted by two-thirds of all the electors at the next biennial meeting for the election of Senators and Representatives.